

School and District Leadership and the Job Satisfaction of Novice Teachers: The Influence of Servant Leadership

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SCHOOL AND DISTRICT LEADERSHIP AND THE JOB SATISFACTION OF NOVICE
TEACHERS: THE INFLUENCE OF SERVANT LEADERSHIP

Dissertation in Practice by

MARK F. MCMANMON

with Kori Alice Becht, Elizabeth Chamberland, Bridget Gough,
Matthew Joseph, and Michael Morris

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SCHOOL AND DISTRICT LEADERSHIP AND THE JOB SATISFACTION OF NOVICE TEACHERS: THE INFLUENCE OF SERVANT LEADERSHIP

by

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Abstract

This qualitative case study examined the perceived influence of servant leadership on the job satisfaction of novice teachers in one Massachusetts school district. Servant leadership was defined as “an understanding and practice of leadership that places the good of those led over the self-interest of the leader” (Laub, 1999, p. 81). Data were gathered from interviews with school and district leaders and novice teachers as well as through the analysis of school and district documents. The results of the study found the job satisfaction of novice teachers was positively influenced by servant leadership. In particular, both school leaders and novice teachers perceived leaders who valued novice teachers, behaved ethically, and empowered others to have a positive influence on the job satisfaction of novice teachers. While the research literature also highlights humility as an important element of servant leadership, the majority of novice teachers did not perceive it to have a positive influence on their job satisfaction. The results of this study substantiate prior research suggesting servant leadership plays a positive role in the job satisfaction of teachers. Recommendations include additional psychological empowerment of novice teachers and a continued emphasis on the practice of behaving ethically and valuing others.

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Table of Contents

| | |
|--|----|
| CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION | 1 |
| Statement of Problem and Research Questions | 1 |
| Literature Review | 4 |
| Herzberg’s Two-Factor Theory | 4 |
| Two-Factor Theory in Education..... | 5 |
| School-Based Factors: The Third Domain of Teacher Satisfaction | 6 |
| Novice Teachers..... | 8 |
| Factors Influencing Novice Teacher Job Satisfaction | 11 |
| Extrinsic factors | 12 |
| School working conditions | 12 |
| Pedagogical practices related to diverse student populations | 13 |
| Intrinsic motivators | 14 |
| Self-efficacy | 14 |
| Autonomy | 15 |
| School-based factors | 16 |
| Collaborative school culture | 16 |
| Mentoring | 19 |
| School leadership..... | 20 |
| Central office | 22 |
| Conclusion | 25 |
| CHAPTER 2: METHODOLOGY | 28 |
| Design of the Study | 28 |

| | |
|--|----|
| Site selection | 29 |
| District context..... | 30 |
| Student demographics | 30 |
| Accountability levels | 31 |
| Teacher demographics | 32 |
| District spending | 33 |
| Leadership turnover | 33 |
| Participant selection | 34 |
| Data Collection | 36 |
| Interviews | 36 |
| Document review | 36 |
| School documents | 37 |
| District documents | 37 |
| Field notes | 37 |
| Data Analysis | 37 |
| Authenticity and Trustworthiness of the Data | 41 |
| Individual Bias | 41 |
| Ethical Treatment of Participants | 42 |
| CHAPTER 3: INDIVIDUAL STUDY | 45 |
| The Influence of Servant Leadership on Job Satisfaction | 45 |
| Relationship of the Individual Study to the Group Research | 46 |
| The Concept of Servant Leadership..... | 47 |
| Humility | 49 |

| | |
|---|----|
| Valuing People..... | 49 |
| Behaving Ethically..... | 50 |
| Empowering Followers..... | 50 |
| Servant Leadership and Job Satisfaction | 51 |
| Non-Educational Organizations..... | 51 |
| Educational Organizations | 54 |
| Public School Research..... | 54 |
| Religious School Research | 55 |
| International School Research | 56 |
| Methodology | 57 |
| Findings | 59 |
| School Leaders and Servant Leadership..... | 59 |
| Humility | 59 |
| Valuing People..... | 61 |
| Behaving Ethically..... | 62 |
| Empowering Followers..... | 63 |
| Novice Teachers and Servant Leadership..... | 67 |
| Humility | 67 |
| Valuing People..... | 69 |
| Behaving Ethically..... | 70 |
| Empowering Followers..... | 71 |
| Discussion..... | 75 |
| CHAPTER 4: DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS | 81 |

| | |
|---|-----|
| District Context | 82 |
| Interpersonal Relationships..... | 82 |
| Communication..... | 83 |
| School Culture | 83 |
| Supervision and Feedback | 84 |
| Leadership Visibility and Accessibility | 85 |
| Selfless Leadership | 86 |
| Valuing Novice Teachers..... | 87 |
| Collegial Collaboration..... | 89 |
| Divergent Perceptions | 90 |
| Induction | 91 |
| Social Justice | 91 |
| Educator Evaluation | 92 |
| Teacher Leadership Opportunities | 93 |
| Recommendations | 94 |
| Induction | 95 |
| Professional Development | 97 |
| District-wide planning | 97 |
| Self reflection..... | 98 |
| Evaluation | 99 |
| Teacher Leadership..... | 100 |
| Implications for Future Practice..... | 101 |
| Limitations | 101 |

| | |
|---|-----|
| Conclusion | 104 |
| References | 106 |
| Appendices..... | 123 |
| Appendix A: Study Timeline | 123 |
| Appendix B: Novice Teacher Interview Protocol..... | 124 |
| Appendix C: School and District Leader Interview Protocol | 127 |

List of Figures

| | |
|---|----|
| Figure 1. A three-domain model of teacher satisfaction | 8 |
| Figure 2. Approach of research team in analyzing school and district leadership practices in a three-domain model of teacher satisfaction | 25 |
| Figure 3. Diagram of data analysis | 40 |

List of Tables

| | |
|---|----|
| Table 1. Student Demographics of the District and State | 31 |
| Table 2. School Type and Accountability Levels | 32 |
| Table 3. Teacher and Student Demographics of the District | 32 |

CHAPTER 1¹

Introduction

The high rate of novice teacher turnover is a significant problem for educational leaders (Ingersoll & Smith, 2003). Researchers note that, “after just five years, between 40 and 50 percent of all beginning teachers have left the profession” (p. 2). The attrition rate is substantial because it is expensive for districts to train new teachers (Wynn, Carboni, & Patall, 2007). As teaching experience is a critical factor of student success (Darling-Hammond, 2000a ; Huang & Moon, 2009; Murnane & Phillips, 1981), “high levels of teacher attrition make it difficult for schools to achieve a “critical mass” of faculty who possess the skills and experience necessary to sustain educational reforms called for by policy makers” (Huling, Resta, & Yeargain, 2012, p. 14). Thus, teacher attrition has numerous ramifications for school improvement efforts, pupil achievement, and policy implementation.

Statement of Problem

Teachers frequently leave the profession as a result of job dissatisfaction and the aspiration to find a better career (Ingersoll, 2001). This combination accounts for 42% of departures from the teaching profession (Ingersoll, 2001). A closer look at these statistics reveals the main sources of teacher dissatisfaction are “low salaries, lack of support from the school administration, student discipline problems, and lack of teacher influence over school-wide and classroom decision making” (p. 522). Lam and Yan (2011) define job satisfaction as . . .

derived from factors related to job nature, that is, what employees actually do . . . the job is perceived as providing positive satisfaction if it has characteristics that lead to the

¹ This chapter was jointly written by the authors listed and reflects the team approach of this project: Kori Becht, Elizabeth Chamberland, Bridget Gough, Matthew Joseph, Mark McManmon, and Michael Morris

satisfaction of higher-order human needs, such as personal growth and recognition. (p. 336)

For the purposes of this study, job satisfaction is defined as a “pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job and job experience” (Hulpia, Devos, & Rossell, 2009, p. 294). The Alliance for Excellent Education, in collaboration with the New Teacher Center, found that about “13 percent of the nation’s 3.4 million teachers move schools or leave the profession every year, costing states up to \$2 billion” (Haynes, Maddock, & Goldrick, 2014, p. 1). Further, “researchers estimate that over 1 million teachers move in and out of schools annually, and between 40 and 50 percent quit within five years” (p. 1). School and district leadership may have a strong impact on novice teachers’ job satisfaction (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2011).

The issue of novice teacher performance and attrition is not distributed evenly across all schools and districts, however. For instance, many urban schools have a higher percentage of novice teacher attrition and a higher rate of teacher transience compared to suburban counterparts (Jacob, 2007). Novice teachers are often placed in high poverty, racially diverse classrooms, and work with large numbers of students with learning disabilities (Fantilli & McDougall, 2009; Ladson-Billings, 2001). As a result, this places novice teachers at a disadvantage by a lack of mentoring and preparation for negotiating the political context of the school, district, and community (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2011).

There are many variables that contribute to the composition of school and district culture. For example, in a study conducted in North Carolina, African-American students were significantly more likely to be taught by a novice teacher than their white counterparts (Clofelter, Ladd & Vigdor, 2005). The data for this study were gathered from a comparison of racial

segregation of students and the probability of having a novice teacher in 7th grade math classrooms. Similarly, a study in New York found that “nonwhite, poor, and low performing students, particularly those in urban areas, attend schools with less qualified teachers” (Lankford, Loeb, & Wyckoff, 2002, p. 54). Peske and Haycock (2006) found that “classes in high-poverty and high minority secondary schools are more likely to be taught by ‘out-of-field teachers’ – those without a major or minor in the subject they teach” (p. 2). While novice teacher attrition affects all schools, these studies indicate that the impact of these factors is likely greater in schools that are already struggling to reach achievement targets than more affluent schools and districts.

Ladd (2011) and Stockard and Lehman (2004) observe that school leaders influence the job satisfaction and retention of teachers. As Ladd (2011) points out, “the higher the perceived quality of school leadership, the less likely teachers are either to plan to leave or actually to leave the school” (p. 256). Research suggests that:

school management policies influence teacher satisfaction and retention, with teachers who are employed in settings where they have greater influence over school policy, greater control over their own classroom, more effective administrators, and a mentoring system that provides support in their initial years of teaching being both more satisfied and more likely to stay in the field. (Stockard & Lehman, 2004, p. 744)

These findings suggest educational leaders impact the job satisfaction and ultimately the retention of teachers in the profession. Given the role school leadership plays in the job satisfaction and retention of teachers (Ingersoll, 2001; Ladd, 2011; Stockard & Lehman, 2004), the purpose of this study was to explore the influence of school and district leadership on the job satisfaction of novice teachers. The overarching questions for this research were:

1. How do school and district leaders perceive their role in the development of novice teacher job satisfaction?
2. In what way(s), if any, do novice teachers attribute job satisfaction to school and district leadership?

The literature review that follows grounds our research. Dinham and Scott's Three-Factor Theory and other theories related to job satisfaction (Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman, 1959; Sergiovanni, 1967) provide the conceptual framework. The research presents extrinsic, intrinsic, and school-based factors that may influence the job satisfaction of novice teachers.

Literature Review

The first section of the literature review provides a conceptual overview of Dinham and Scott's Three-Factor Theory and other theories that inform our understanding of the presence or absence of teacher job satisfaction. The second section explores the factors that influence teacher job satisfaction: school conditions, school culture, teachers' self-efficacy, and leadership.

Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory

The two-factor theory of job satisfaction (Herzberg et al., 1959) is commonly used to describe how employees across a variety of fields develop attitudes about their work (Bassett-Jones & Lloyd, 2005; Herzberg, 1968) and "has become one of the most used, known, and widely respected theories for explaining motivation and job satisfaction" (DeShields, Kara, & Kaynak, 2005, p. 131). The theory posits that factors influencing work satisfaction are separate and unrelated to factors that may cause dissatisfaction with work. The satisfying factors, or motivators, are job-intrinsic and are internally generated, such as personal achievement, responsibility, and commitment to the work (Bassett-Jones & Lloyd, 2005; Stello, 2011). Motivators are highly connected to the characteristics derived from Maslow's theory of personal

growth and self-actualization (as cited in Stello, 2011). The presence of motivators contributes to job satisfaction; the absence of motivators would be neutral and would not cause dissatisfaction because the factors contributing to dissatisfaction are on a different scale (Herzberg et al., 1959).

According to this theory, a separate continuum of factors, called hygiene factors, can cause dissatisfaction with work. These factors are related to the general environment that surround the job, such as working conditions and policies that govern the way work is to be done (Herzberg et al., 1959) and are outside the employee's control (DeShields et al., 2005). For instance, the increasing quantity of non-teaching tasks, especially in the form of paperwork, has been identified as a significant hygiene factor for classroom teachers (Spear, Gould, & Lee, 2000). In a similar way that motivators do not cause dissatisfaction, hygiene factors are not a cause of work satisfaction, but can be the source of dissatisfaction.

Two-Factor Theory in Education

Sergiovanni (1967) applied the two-factor theory to teachers to see if the same trend would apply in this specific job field. His research confirmed the findings of Herzberg et al. (1959) in an educational context and added details on which satisfiers and hygiene factors had the most significant effect on teacher job satisfaction. He found that personal achievement, recognition, and responsibility were the most critical factors influencing teacher satisfaction; other satisfiers in the study, such as career advancement, did not appear to relate to teacher satisfaction (Sergiovanni, 1967). The most significant hygiene factor for teachers was interpersonal relations and this response was consistent regardless of demographic factors such as tenure status, gender, or grade level (Sergiovanni, 1967). The study also found that teachers, much like the employees in the study by Herzberg et al. (1959), were primarily motivated by intrinsic factors. Holdaway (1978) confirmed this finding, stating that:

The highest percentages “Satisfied” were obtained with interpersonal relationships, freedom in making instructional decisions, and the teaching assignment. Highest percentages “Dissatisfied” occurred with the facets of attitudes of society and parents; status of teachers . . . and staffing procedures. (p. 45)

School-Based Factors: The Third Domain of Teacher Satisfaction

Because of growing concern about teacher satisfaction, Dinham & Scott (2000) initiated the Teacher 2000 Project, an international program aimed to measure teacher motivation, satisfaction, and health to inform policy and decision-making (Dinham & Scott, 1997). This research confirmed many aspects of Sergiovanni’s (1967) and Herzberg et al.’s (1959) studies, such as intrinsic factors that proved the most significant aspects in determining teacher satisfaction (Dinham & Scott, 1997). Despite this core similarity, Dinham and Scott found altruism and personal growth to be the most influential intrinsic factors, which varies slightly from Sergiovanni’s findings. Other research has found that “teachers in different countries generally derive job satisfaction from factors integral to the teaching job: assisting the growth of children, developing good relationships with students, and experiencing self-growth” (Lam & Yan, 2011, p. 336), which, similar to Dinham and Scott (1997), indicates slight changes over time in the specific intrinsic factors that influence teachers. The literature consistently confirms that intrinsic factors play a central role in determining teacher job satisfaction.

While hygiene factors similar to those identified in Sergiovanni’s research (1967) were found, the negative image of teachers in the media is a new finding that contributes to dissatisfaction (Dinham & Scott, 1997). This change may be due to shifts in the public perception of education as well as increased governmental involvement in schools that have occurred during the thirty years between the two studies. Recent studies found that significant

hygiene factors for teachers include increasing workloads, the low status that teachers hold in our society, and low salaries (Lam & Yan, 2011), as well as the accountability pressures that have come from No Child Left Behind legislation (Byrd-Blake et al., 2010; U.S. Department of Education, 2009) and reduced teacher autonomy (Moore, 2012; Shann, 1998).

While the similarities in these research findings are significant, one major difference emerged. Dinham and Scott (1997, 2000) identified a “third factor” of variables that, unlike satisfiers and hygiene factors, may impact either teacher satisfaction or dissatisfaction. They found that:

. . . there was a third broad band of factors revealed by the study which previous research had not identified, this third or middle band being comprised of largely school-based factors. Falling between the universally perceived intrinsic rewards of teaching such as self-growth and pupil achievement (most satisfying), and the universal extrinsic hindrances to teacher satisfaction and effectiveness such as educational change, the status of teachers and increased administrative workloads (most dissatisfying), are school-based factors such as school leadership, climate and decision-making, school reputation, and school infrastructure, and it was these factors where most variation occurred from school to school and where there is thus greatest potential for change within schools. (1997, p. 16)

These school-based factors differ from satisfiers because they are not intrinsic to the teacher and differ from hygiene factors because they have the capacity to increase job satisfaction (Dinham & Scott, 1998).

These school-based factors are of critical importance in this research as this study focused on aspects of these less explored and more recently identified elements of teacher

satisfaction. Embedded in this research is the assumption that educational leaders have the greatest ability and capacity to influence a critical school-based factor that contributes to teacher satisfaction, which is primarily “a product of leadership” (Dinham & Scott, 1997, p. 16), as compared to leaders’ ability to influence intrinsic satisfiers and hygiene factors, which are primarily outside the control of leaders. Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2011) found that supervisory support contributes to teachers’ sense of belonging, which correlates with job satisfaction and a reduced motivation to leave the profession. This study aimed to investigate discrete leadership frameworks within this third factor that contribute to teacher job satisfaction (See Figure 1).



Figure 1. A three-domain model of teacher satisfaction. Reprinted from Dinham & Scott (2000, p. 393).

The next section of this chapter outlines the factors, identified through the literature, that have been shown to influence the job satisfaction of novice teachers. The identified factors will be analyzed through the three-domain model of teacher satisfaction to allow for further investigation of school-based factors that influence the job satisfaction of novice teachers.

Novice Teachers

The profile of the novice teacher is no longer exclusively defined as the recent graduate from a formal teacher preparation program. Johnson (2004) describes the new wave of novice

teachers as, “more homogeneous in race and gender than the retiring generation, more diverse in terms of age, prior experience, preparation, expectations regarding the workplace, and conceptions of career” (p. 7). Research conducted for the U.S. Department of Education by Goldring, Gray, & Bitterman (2013) found that 82% of the current teaching force was non-Hispanic White, 7% were non-Hispanic Black, and 8% were Hispanic. While the demographics of the teaching force have not shifted dramatically, there has been a shift in the quality of the teacher preparation programs completed by the current population of teachers. No Child Left Behind (NCLB) “challenged the traditional concept of teaching by emphasizing content mastery and verbal ability, downplaying pedagogy as a less powerful determinant of student achievement,” which led to changes in many teacher preparation programs (Blanton, Sindelar, & Correa, 2006, p. 115). As a result, NCLB policies created an increased demand to replace underperforming teachers, which sparked the creation of non-traditional entry points into the teaching career. Addressing the shift in teacher preparation, Darling-Hammond (2006) states that “teacher education as an enterprise has probably launched more new weak programs that underprepared teachers, especially for urban schools, than it has further developed the stronger models that demonstrate what intense preparation can accomplish” (p. 3).

Nearly 40% of new public school teachers enter the profession through non-traditional routes (Headden, 2014). According to Henke, Chen, and Geis, (2000), 29% of novice teachers without student-teaching experience left teaching within five years compared to 15% of those who participated in a teacher education program that required student teaching.

Johnson (2004) also notes that many novice teachers are mid-career entrants. Johnson describes a novice teacher population where 28% to 47% of the teaching force has worked for a substantial amount of time in another field. Although these novice teachers bring a variety of

experiences, “midcareer entrants often enter their new school expecting a workplace that was better equipped, more flexible, and more committed to their success than the one they found” (p. 25).

Novice teachers, at a unique phase in their profession, between theory and fully developed practice, are entering a profession vastly different from previous generations (Johnson, 2004). While Johnson focused on teachers in year one and two of their careers, she emphasizes the variation in workplace expectations as they enter the profession. For instance, since the 1960s, a wider range of career options has become available to women. Many of these professions provided a substantial improvement in compensation and training. This has elevated the expectations novice teachers have for support as they enter the teaching profession. This is in contrast to the increasing demands placed on new teachers. Johnson posits that novice teachers are “expected to teach all students so that they achieve high standards and to take on new functions beyond the traditional scope of school’s responsibility” (p. 7). Johnson also states “school structures and practices are no longer adequate to support either teachers’ development or students’ learning” (p. 8). Fantilli and McDougall (2009) identify several challenges that novice teachers experience in their first few years. Significant challenges include difficult teaching assignments, limited or no school support, inadequate traditional and non-traditional preparation programs, an emphasis on student preparation to pass high-stakes assessments and limited skills in differentiating instruction for exceptional students. Johnson (2004) presents the challenge to public schools as follows:

An issue of great concern to policymakers, practitioners, and the public is the challenge of ensuring that all students, whoever they are and wherever they live, have good teachers. If schools fail to attract and retain a strong, committed cohort of new teachers in

the coming years, students will be severely penalized, and those in low income communities will be likely to pay the greatest price. (p. 269)

Yet, despite the challenges new teachers face, novice teachers directly impact students, their learning, and the culture of the school. While growing a population of experienced teachers is imperative for the teaching profession, this work must be embedded within a system of supports that recognizes and encourages and is equipped to develop teachers with the pedagogical and content skills to meet the needs of all students (Andrews, Gilbert & Martin, 2007; Brock & Grady, 1998; Hallinger, 2011).

Factors Influencing Novice Teacher Job Satisfaction

According to Shann (1998), “Teacher job satisfaction has been shown to be a predictor of teacher retention, a determinant of teacher commitment, and in turn, a contribution to school effectiveness” (p. 67). Yet, there is a range of factors related to teacher job satisfaction, and these factors may vary over time, reflecting organizational and cultural changes (Rhodes, Nevill, & Allan, 2004; Shreeve et al., 1998). According to Shreeve et al., “factors of job satisfaction shift with the times and fluctuate with the mores, in effect reflecting facets of the changing culture” (p. 182). The MetLife Survey of American Teachers (Markow, Macia, & Lee, 2013) examined teacher job satisfaction and how the factors of job satisfaction change over time. Teacher job satisfaction rose from 40% in 1984 to reach a high of 62% in 2009. However, in 2012, teacher satisfaction declined to 39%, the lowest point since 1986 (Markow et al., 2013).

Based on the third domain of teacher satisfaction, the next section of the literature identifies factors that influence the job satisfaction of the novice teacher. Intrinsic and extrinsic motivators are specifically connected to working conditions, teacher pedagogical practice, self-efficacy, and teacher autonomy. School-based factors, school culture, as well as school and

district leadership, informed this study, as it is school leadership that realizes the collective importance of all of these factors. Leadership includes aspects such as "working to procure necessary resources and materials, but even more importantly, fostering teacher participation in decision-making and providing valuable opportunities for professional growth" (Sass, Seal, & Martin, 2011, p. 212).

Extrinsic factors. Herzberg's Two Factor Theory (1959) and Sergiovanni (1967) describe the extrinsic teacher dissatisfiers as conditions teachers perceive to be beyond their control. Two factors identified in the literature as contributing to novice teacher job dissatisfaction are working conditions and pedagogical practices related to diverse student populations.

School working conditions. School working conditions can negatively influence the job satisfaction of novice teachers (Dinham & Scott, 1997; Lam & Yan, 2011; Rhodes et al., 2004). Many novice teachers are given more challenging work assignments than their veteran colleagues (Clotfelter et al., 2005; Johnson, 2004). Kardos and Moore Johnson (2007) surveyed a random sample of 486 first- and second-year teachers in four states and found that while 23% of respondents indicated having fewer responsibilities than their more experienced colleagues, 36% indicated that their workload was too heavy, and 52% reported that they did not have enough time available for planning and preparation. The accessibility of resources may also influence job satisfaction as novice teachers often report that they teach classes in multiple rooms and have insufficient supplies or equipment (Johnson, 2004). Collie, Shapka, and Perry (2012) note an association between resource access and job satisfaction. As Lam and Yan (2011) state, "when the school environment allows for teachers to focus on the core business of teaching and allows a reasonable work-life balance, teachers are more likely to become engaged in teaching" (p. 345).

Pedagogical practices related to diverse student populations. Research indicates that a large number of novice teachers are placed in high poverty, high minority classrooms, and work with large numbers of students with learning disabilities (Fantilli & McDougall, 2009; Ladson-Billings, 2001). According to Darling-Hammond (2000b), teachers who were less prepared were less satisfied with their training and had greater difficulties identifying learning needs. She suggests, “They are less able to adapt their instruction to promote student learning and less likely to see it as their job to do so, blaming students if their teaching is not effective” (p. 167). Ladson-Billings (2001) furthers this thinking, “New teachers are often placed in the schools serving the poorest students and those who have failed to benefit from schooling, so the students with the greatest educational needs find themselves being taught by the teachers least prepared to teach them” (p. 17). Thus, an explanation as to why novice teachers leave high poverty, high minority schools may be a result of the context in which they work (Johnson, Kraft, & Papay, 2012). Due to novice teachers’ lack of experience in understanding a student’s language or culture, they may be unable to consider the “impact of their pedagogical decisions on student behavior” (Rodriguez, 2007, p. 63) or academic achievement. Bartolomé (2008) stressed the need to increase teachers’ “ideological clarity” in order to “resist deficit views on students and prevent them from hiding behind views to explain why students do not respond to their instruction” (p. xx). Instead of perpetuating a deficit perspective, teachers are able to “better understand if, when, and how their belief systems uncritically reflect those of the dominant society, and thus unknowingly serve to maintain the unequal and unacceptable conditions that so many students experience on a daily basis” (Bartolomé, 2008, p. xix).

For example, in special education, novice teachers may also struggle with students with learning disabilities. Brownell et al. (2009) conducted a study of 34 special educators who were

in their first 3 years of teaching. Twenty-six of these beginning teachers held a license, “8 taught on a temporary certificate” and all participants “taught reading to third, fourth and/or fifth grade students with LD” (p. 395). It is important to note that teachers on temporary licenses have generally not completed an authentic teacher preparation program. Brownell et al. (2009) found that although the beginning special education teachers in this particular study had some knowledge related to teaching reading, they struggled with the pedagogical practice of teaching reading, such as decoding, facilitating discussion around text, and prompting students to use strategies previously taught. The research also indicated that beginning special education teachers relied more on classroom management and general instructional practice to inform student achievement. This study’s findings may not only cause a concern over the adequacy of special education teacher preparation programs, but these findings may also give us pause to think about all teacher preparations programs as they may be “broad in focus, providing effective instruction and classroom management, but unable to provide in depth instruction in content areas such as reading” (p. 408). Teachers, in general, are more satisfied in schools that provide them with tools to enhance both their content knowledge and pedagogical skills (Johnson et al., 2012; Rodriguez, 2007).

Intrinsic motivators. Herzberg’s Two Factor Theory (1959) and Sergiovanni (1967) describe intrinsic satisfiers as most influential on the job satisfaction of teachers. Two factors identified in the literature as influencing the job satisfaction of the novice teacher are teacher self-efficacy and autonomy.

Self-efficacy. Teachers’ self-efficacy, the belief in the ability to deal with challenges, complete tasks, and impact student outcomes, not only correlates with student achievement, but by increasing early career teachers’ self-efficacy, schools have the potential to retain high quality

teachers who are invested in the profession (Elliot, Isaacs, & Chugani, 2010). Early career teachers who have a significantly low sense of self-efficacy are more likely to leave the profession within their first few years often as the result of feeling overwhelmed, ineffective, and unsupported (Elliot et al., 2010; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2007). Professional experiences such as a positive school culture, support from school leadership, and opportunities for collegial collaboration contribute to novice teachers' sense of self-efficacy and their desire to remain in the profession.

Teachers' self-efficacy is a critical component in both teacher retention and job satisfaction. According to Fry (2009), "self-efficacy has been meaningfully used in educational research as a means of examining teacher success" as it "influences people's expectations of success, how much effort they expend, and the extent to which they persist in activities" (p. 96). Teachers with high self-efficacy believe their actions contribute to student achievement while those with low self-efficacy are driven by extrinsic rewards (Yee, 1990). Those teachers who lack the confidence in their ability to teach students of different backgrounds and abilities may "blame behavior on students and parents" instead of considering "the impact of their pedagogical decisions on the student's behavior" (Rodriguez, 2007, p. 63). Johnson, Kraft, and Papay (2012) note that teachers with high levels of self-efficacy may experience success and satisfaction in working with a diverse group of learners because of their commitment to social justice or to the common good "while others avoid working with the same students because they lack the confidence or doubt that they can be successful in teaching them" (p. 27).

Autonomy. Professional autonomy is a significant factor related to teacher job satisfaction (Crossman & Harris, 2006; Lam & Yan, 2011; Moore, 2012; Stockard & Lehman, 2004). A study by Strong and Yoshida (2014) indicated that despite the changing educational

climate, such as federal accountability policies and state mandates, “teachers still perceived their classroom as the highest area of autonomy regardless of level” (p. 139). Dinham and Scott (1997) found that a key element in the third-factor theory was the variable of control. First year teachers were more satisfied in schools where they felt they had a sense of control over their classrooms and influence over their work environment (Moore, 2012; Stockard & Lehman, 2004). Moore (2012) defines teacher control as “control over teaching practices, control over grading, control over discipline, and control over homework” (p. 10). Additionally, Stockard and Lehman (2004) reported low rates of teacher job satisfaction for teachers who felt they had less influence over school policy. We move now to the school-based factors determined to also influence the job satisfaction of the novice and considered to be within the influence of school and district leadership.

School-based factors. Dinham and Scott (2000) describe the third domain of teacher satisfaction as comprised of school-based factors that are neither highly satisfying nor dissatisfying. Four factors identified as influencing the job satisfaction of the novice teacher included in this domain are collaborative school culture, mentoring, school leadership, and district leadership. These factors were of significant interest to this research because school and district leaders influence them.

Collaborative school culture. The term school culture describes the environment that affects the behavior of teachers, school leaders, and students (Angelle, 2006; Barresi & Olson, 1994; Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005; Deal & Peterson, 1999). Darling-Hammond and Sclan (1996) and Hoy and Miskel (2005) define shared beliefs in a school culture as the values, visions, norms, individual beliefs, and the everyday experiences of the school community members. School culture has the ability to affect and inspire all members of the school

community. A presence of professional learning communities and collaborative instructional and collegial practices (i.e., grade level team meetings, common teacher planning time, data meetings) are evident in a collaborative school culture (Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005; DuFour, 2002; DuFour, 2004; DuFour, 2003; Hoaglund, Birkenfeld, & Box, 2014). Therefore, in this study, beliefs and collaborative practice were examined as two components of school culture.

Several researchers have found administrators to be particularly vital to the development and sustainability of culture in schools. Tantillo (2001) found that the role of the school leaders is essential in shaping school culture and that school culture and the environment in which teachers work have a significant impact on job satisfaction. Novice teachers indicated collegial support, the construct of which is impacted by the school culture, is one of the most important influences on job satisfaction (Dinham & Scott, 1997; Stockard & Lehman, 2004). Johnson et al. (2012) found that it was not the working conditions “such as well-maintained facilities or access to modern technology” (p. 2), but rather the positive social conditions such as collegial collaboration that was a predictive factor in influencing teacher job satisfaction. Beginning teachers revealed, “collaboration without competition and the need for collective learning both tempered with a sense of mutual respect, were important for professional growth” (Brown & Wynn, 2007, p. 675).

Socialization of novice teachers into a collaborative school culture is also essential in increasing teacher retention (Angelle, 2006; Saphier, Freedman, & Aschheim, 2002). Flores (2004) states:

Schools are places where teaching occurs, but they are also places for teachers to learn and develop. Despite the widespread recognition of the importance of working conditions

in fostering school and teacher development, most structural reform efforts have failed to address this issue adequately. (p. 299)

Flores (2004) further identifies that school workplace conditions have a direct impact on overall teacher development and learning. Collaboration is seen as a mitigating condition for teachers to grow in the profession and to accept and implement change effectively. Collaborative workplace relationships and cultures are associated with a supportive environment and better development opportunities for new teachers (Williams, Prestage & Bedward, 2001); thus, improving teacher morale leads to stronger commitment and better retention (Weiss, 1999).

Coleman (1988) and Lin (2002) describe the resources that are developed through professional relationships and collaboration as “social capital.” Social capital has been found to contribute to successful school reform efforts and build trust (Bryk & Schneider, 2002). Spillane, Kim, and Frank (2012) found that formal, organizational structure has a greater influence on social capital than the individual characteristics of staff members. This research indicates that the decisions made by school administrators affect the social capital development of teachers by allowing them to make strong connections with colleagues in teams such as grade levels pairings. The development of “social resources accessed through ties and critical for developing new knowledge” (Spillane, Kim, & Frank, 2012, p. 1135), essential for novice teachers given their relative lack of experience, are deeply influenced by how school leaders structure the collaborative teams in their school. A collaborative school culture is enhanced through the presence of professional learning communities and collaborative practices (Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005; DuFour, 2002; DuFour, 2003; Hoaglund et al., 2014). This type of school culture is characterized by the presence of opportunities for shared leadership, educator ownership of school policies, the sharing of instructional and pedagogical ideas, all embedded in

a climate of acceptance and support. Novice teachers benefit when feedback is received from an experienced group of educators who are able to model the positive constructs of an established collaborative environment (Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005).

Angelle (2006) introduced the concept of professional socialization as the “process whereby the novice learns about and becomes a part of the organization” as linked directly to teacher quality and longevity. Leadership is essential in matching novice teachers with supportive veteran role models to ensure that positive expectations for performance are communicated even if the school is underperforming or lacks in support (Tantillo, 2001). Formally socializing novice teachers into the school culture allows them to learn school expectations and approaches, skills and knowledge, stay current with the practices of colleagues, and seek to become a member of the larger school population (Angelle, 2006). Additionally, socialization supports teacher longevity, enhances teacher experience, and decreases teacher attrition (Angelle, 2006).

Mentoring. Novice teachers indicated mentoring programs were a significant influence on job satisfaction (Huisman, Singer, & Catapano, 2010; Johnson et al., 2012; Liu & Ramsey, 2008; Rodriguez, 2007; Scherff, 2008; Yee, 1990). A recent report from the American Institutes of Research indicates that novice teachers place significant value on the support received from a mentor (Behrstock-Sherratt, Bassett, Olson, & Jacques, 2014). The same study also indicates the mentoring received must be in a similar content area or grade level and must be high quality.

Ingersoll and Strong (2011) qualify the presence of mentoring indicating that it is most effective when conducted on-site by trained mentors, with similar certification. They further state that teachers who receive such mentoring typically demonstrate greater skill in creating a positive classroom atmosphere, demonstrating solid instructional methods, and maintaining

effective classroom management. As a result, the quality of mentoring is a key element in overall mentoring effectiveness. The quality of mentoring programs varies greatly from district to district. Ingersoll and Strong (2011) observe that districts “vary as how they select, prepare, assign and compensate the mentors themselves” (p. 204). For this study, the mentoring process was examined through the viewpoints of the novice teacher.

Littrell, Billingsley, and Cross assert that, “one of the most important acts schools can take is to provide support to beginning teachers” (1994, p. 36). Quality mentoring programs provide support to novice teachers as they adjust to the working environment and provide access to professional development opportunities (Huisman et al., 2010). Rodriguez (2007) revealed that novice teachers experienced increased job satisfaction when they had mentors who took time to answer questions, consistently visited their classrooms, provided sustained support, gave constructive criticism, and developed trusting relationships. Thus, having an experienced mentor helps novice teachers acquire “contextualized knowledge and skills” (p. 65) and develop the self-confidence needed for success. While the mentor serves as a collegial support system for the novice teacher, building and district leadership are also school-based factors that influence novice teacher job satisfaction.

School leadership. Teachers identify leadership as a critical factor in the job satisfaction and retention of novice teachers (Blase & Blase, 2000; Hallinger, 2011; Stockard & Lehman, 2004). Deal and Peterson (1999) suggest that the lack of novice teacher job satisfaction can be attributed to the absence of support from school site leadership. Wynn et al. (2007) found clear indications that novice teachers who are satisfied with the principal leadership in their schools are more likely to stay in the profession. In two recent studies, dissatisfaction with school leadership was identified as a significant factor in teachers’ decision-making about whether to

stay or leave their position (Boyd et al., 2011; Ladd, 2011). Boyd et al. (2011) surveyed first year teachers to understand factors that influence first year teacher turnover: “the dominance of dissatisfaction with administrative support is striking...Hardly any teachers cited dissatisfaction with colleagues...respect from students and/or parents...or district policies as a primary reason for leaving” (p. 327). Ladd (2011) discovered that positive perceptions of school leadership correlated with a reduced likelihood that teachers would plan to or actually leave the school. Ladd theorizes that, “the concept of leadership itself that emerges from the factor analysis...includes not only support for teachers, but also a shared vision, (and) trusting environment...” (p. 256).

Flores (2004) suggests that leadership constitutes one of the overarching influences in fostering a sense of professional community among teachers who work in collaborative ways to create shared goals, visions, and standards for their schools. She argues that developing a sense of self-efficacy and self-worth among teachers is a common trait in school leaders who support and promote the building of professional communities within schools. This contrasts with the theory that self-efficacy is an internal characteristic of the novice teacher. Job satisfaction is identified as an outcome directly connected to self-efficacy (Dinham & Scott, 2000). Brock and Grady (1998) found:

The expectations of beginning teachers illustrate that principals are central to the successful socialization and first year induction of beginning teachers. Although most of the literature on teacher induction has focused on the importance of mentors, principals are clearly key figures in the induction process. (p. 180)

While the impact of the school leader is critical in influencing the practice of all teachers, emphasis must be placed on the influence the leader specifically has on novice teachers to positively impact the attrition rate. Roberson and Roberson (2009) observe:

The principal is accountable for the success or failure of teachers to meet school and district goals and of students to reach performance goals. The principal has the power to set in motion the connections and activities that novice teachers need to be successful. (p. 118)

The influence of school leadership on novice teachers takes shape with the development of a clear mission and the creation of a trusting environment, clear school-wide standards, and shared goals (Andrews et al., 2007; Hallinger 2011; Hallinger, Wang & Chen, 2013).

Additionally, embedded within the environment of a school is a unique school culture that directly influences the novice teacher. A principal's ability to develop and maintain a school culture that promotes collaboration and growth is vital to the success of novice teachers (Barth, 2001). Blase & Blase (2000) found, "in effective principal-teacher interaction about instruction, processes such as inquiry, reflection, exploration, and experimentation result; teachers build repertoires of flexible alternatives rather than collecting rigid teaching procedures and methods" (p. 132).

Central office. While school level leadership is important to novice teachers, district leadership is as well. According to Grossman and Thompson (2004), "little attention has been focused on the contexts in which beginning teachers function and how these contexts shape their beliefs, concerns, practice, and opportunities for learning" (p. 282). Their findings indicate that critical contexts such as state, district, school and departmental contexts, influence job satisfaction. It is in the quality of the interaction among these contexts for the novice teacher that

contributes to reinforcing policies; likewise job satisfaction can be compromised when the novice teacher is presented with conflicting policies. Grossman and Thompson address the relationship between novice teachers and district level leadership:

New teachers and experienced teachers relate differently to district policies. The problem for policymakers is not how to change teacher practice but rather how to provide the kinds of supports beginning teachers need as they construct their practice. Because beginning teachers are still in the process of learning to teach, districts may have more opportunity to influence their developing practice through a variety of policies and structures. (p. 282)

Districts can construct powerful learning opportunities and supports for novice teachers.

Grossman and Thompson note:

The tasks [districts] assign to new teachers, the resources they provide, the learning environments they create, the assessments they design, and the conversations they provoke have consequences for what first-year teachers come to learn about teaching. (p. 298)

Honig (2008) further develops the role of central office leadership as a learning organization. The research on learning organizations is grounded in organizational learning theory and concepts related to communities of practice. Honig suggests that, when functioning as a learning organization, central office administration becomes proficient in mining for evidence to inform teaching practices, discriminates to identify the priorities that will impact teaching and learning and serves as a “boundary spanner” to link new priorities to new action through collaboration and relationship building. Honig describes a central office as a learning organization that serves as a critical influence on student learning. The influence on student

learning is realized through cohesive contextual policies implemented by central office leadership. When the central office functions as a learning organization policies will serve to illuminate and reinforce the contexts in which novice teachers work. Schools participating in assistance relationships by relying on central office to support their mission have the additional function of informing central office practices based on the high degree of two-way interactions. Engaging in these relationships transforms central office into a learning organization by informing central office practices (Honig, 2008). Furthermore:

policy initiatives demand that central office administrators work closely with each of their schools to build school-level capacity for high-quality teaching and learning and use their experience as school assistance providers and other evidence to guide central office decisions in ways that promise to seed and grow such [high quality] teaching and learning in schools district-wide. (Honig, 2008, p. 628)

For the purposes of this study, central office is defined as the superintendent, assistant superintendent, director of curriculum, instruction and assessment, and special education director.

While prior research (Boyd et al., 2011; Deal & Peterson, 1999; Ladd, 2011; Wynn et al., 2007) identifies leadership as a primary factor in novice teacher satisfaction and retention, specific leadership theories have not been studied for their connection to the job satisfaction of novice teachers. As Boyd et al. (2011) observe, “our data do not provide enough richness about the role of administration to determine how or why administrative support affects teachers” (p. 329). The authors later note that, “follow-up studies are necessary to investigate why administrative support is important to teachers and what particularly the administration does or does not do which influences a teacher to stay or leave” (p. 329).

Conclusion

A review of the literature reinforces the importance of focusing our study on how school and district leadership influence novice teachers' job satisfaction. The research also underscores the need to examine deeply how school and district leaders contribute to the job satisfaction of novice teachers. Therefore, this study examined school and district leadership practices as well as school culture for their relationship to the job satisfaction of novice teachers (see Figure 2).

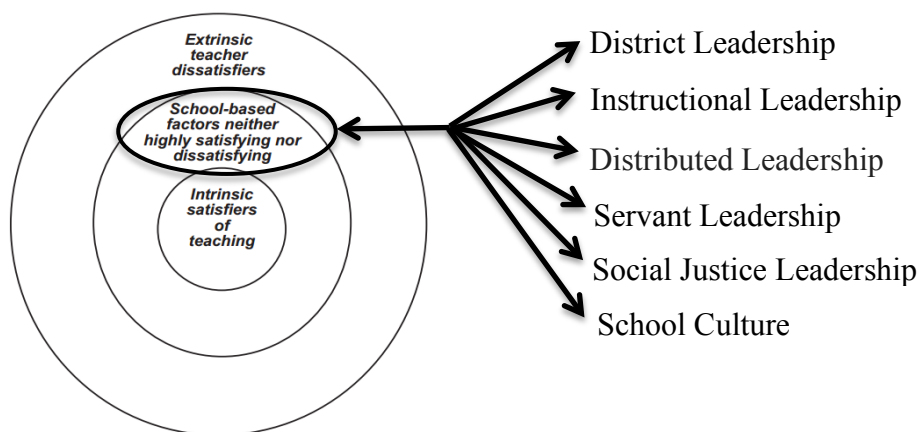


Figure 2. Approach of research team in analyzing school and district leadership practices in a three-domain model of teacher satisfaction

The research team examined the influence of school culture, distributed, servant, social justice, instructional, and central office leadership on the job satisfaction of novice teachers. Definitions of the leadership lenses used in this study are briefly described below.

A collaborative school culture encompasses group norms and values that focus teachers' attention on what is vital in the educational setting and develops a common purpose (Jerald, 2006). Socialization through school culture supports job satisfaction, teacher longevity, and teacher experience, and decreases teacher attrition (Angelle, 2006).

Distributed leadership describes practices that allow for multiple individuals to be leaders in an organization (Gronn, 2002; Hulpia et al., 2009; Spillane, 2006). A primary focus of

distributed leadership is on the interactions between the individuals in leadership roles, both formal and informal, and their organizational environment (Gronn, 2002; Spillane, 2005).

Comparatively, servant leadership is “an understanding and practice of leadership that places the good of those led over the self-interest of the leader” (Laub, 1999, p. 81). This model of leadership places a strong emphasis on humility, empowerment, ethical behavior, and valuing of others that have been shown to influence job satisfaction (Cerit, 2009).

The ever-growing diversity of public school students has given rise to social justice leadership, defined as those leaders who “actively work to improve teaching and learning, so that all students have equitable opportunities to learn and excel” (Rivera-McCutchen, 2014, p. 749). Research indicates that social justice leadership can positively impact novice teachers’ ability to effectively serve marginalized populations, which in turn, can influence job satisfaction (Ladson-Billings, 2001; Marshall & Oliva, 2010; Theoharis, 2009).

Yet over the past twenty-five years, research identifies the instructional leadership of principals as a critical component of effective schools (Babo & Ramaswani, 2011; Catano & Stronge, 2007; Glasman & Heck, 1992). Instructional leadership is commonly described as the leaders’ ability to define a clear mission, manage instructional programming and create a positive school climate (Hallinger, 2003; Hallinger & Murphy, 1987). The instructional program, comprised of supervision and evaluation of instruction, coordination of the curriculum, and monitoring of student progress, correlate to the job satisfaction of the novice teacher (Blase & Blase, 2000).

Finally, central office, when structured as a learning organization, serves as a coach and model for the novice teacher as new initiatives, programs, and policies are implemented (Honig, 2008). Within the learning organization, communities of practice that support learners “shorten

the distance between their current practice and their deeper engagement in a particular activity” (p. 632). This supports the idea of assistance relationships between central offices and schools. Assistance relationships may play a role in supporting building-level leaders who, in turn, support novice teachers. When present, a central office learning organization can influence the job satisfaction of the novice teacher by providing expertise and guidance to support their success (Honig, 2008).

The aggregate analysis of these six lenses will provide a deeper understanding of how distinct leadership styles intersect with each other to influence the job satisfaction of novice teachers. Successful principals do not conform to one particular leadership style at the expense of all others, utilize only one methodology with novice teachers, or stay with a scripted pattern of actions regardless of the context or situation. Leadership evolves and our aggregate analysis shows patterns and themes derived from a range of leadership styles that influenced novice teacher job satisfaction in this case study. The next chapter will describe the methods employed for this study.

CHAPTER 2²

Methodology

The purpose of this research study was to explore how leadership influences the job satisfaction of novice teachers. The following research questions aimed to interrogate more deeply into how leadership influences the job satisfaction of novice teachers:

- How do school and district leaders perceive their role in the development of novice teacher job satisfaction?
- In what ways, if any, do novice teachers attribute job satisfaction to school and district leadership and, if so, how?

This chapter focuses on the design of the study, district context and the methods used to investigate the research questions and collect and analyze data.

Design of the Study

A qualitative case study design was utilized to answer the overarching research questions, which form the foundation of this study. Merriam (2009) defines a case study as “an in-depth description and analysis of a bounded system” (p. 40). This approach was most appropriate to the study because the focus was the analysis of a “bounded system,” one Massachusetts school district. It therefore had clear boundaries and a limited focus. This case study research focused on gaining an in-depth understanding of a learning environment during a specific time (Stake, 1995; Willig, 2008). We believe the case study approach best matched our research because we investigated a specific phenomenon with a certain group of people (i.e. leadership influence on novice teachers). According to Yin (2009), a case study design is appropriate when the focus of

² This chapter was jointly written by the authors listed and reflects the team approach of this project: Kori Becht, Elizabeth Chamberland, Bridget Gough, Matthew Joseph, Mark McManmon, and Michael Morris

the study is to answer how and why questions and to address conditions relevant to the phenomenon under study.

Additionally, developing thick description, which is defined by Merriam (2009) as “a term from anthropology [which] means the complete, literal description of the phenomenon under study” (p. 43) was another reason for using a case study design. This aspect of case study research was critical to exploring the influence of leadership on novice teachers in a deep and insightful way.

A case study was the most appropriate method to answer the research questions because a case study involves the development of findings that “illuminate [a] reader’s understanding of [a] phenomenon” (Merriam, 2009, p. 44). Our goal was to provide an insightful and nuanced understanding of the connection between school leadership and the job satisfaction of novice teachers. A case study approach provided the opportunity to discover insights that would not otherwise be found using a quantitative approach.

This collaborative study consisted of six individual studies that utilized a common data set gathered from comprehensive interview protocols. While the individual studies include analysis unique to their research questions, findings across the studies were identified by the authors and are shared in Chapter 4.

Site selection. This study took place in a Massachusetts public school district that served K-12 students, which we refer to as the Columbia Public School District. The district was selected based on the existence of a significant population of novice teachers and the willingness of school and district leadership to participate in the study. Since the team was studying novice teachers at all grade levels and disciplines in public school districts, selecting a district that allowed for K-12 participants was essential. Additionally, the selected site was classified by the

Department of Elementary and Secondary Education (DESE) as a Level 3 district to account for multiple variables highlighted in our review of literature that may impact the experience of novice teachers. The state of Massachusetts classifies all public schools on a scale of 1-5 with 1 being the highest and 5 being the lowest based on a complex formula that aims to measure the progress of school districts in narrowing the proficiency gap in the areas of science, math, and English language arts. Focusing on a Level 3 district that included low-performing schools was important as they often have the highest rate of attrition (Lankford et al., 2002). Highlighting and understanding the influence of leadership in struggling districts and schools can support leaders and ultimately lead to improving novice teachers' job satisfaction in low performing schools. Private or religious schools were not included in the study.

District Context

The parts of the school district near the border of the neighboring city tended to be less affluent and include more rental housing, whereas the sections farther from the city had higher rates of homeownership and a lower population density. The population of the school district grew rapidly in the 1950s and 1960s; since that time period, the community experienced slow but steady growth.

Student demographics. Approximately 4,000 students attended the Columbia School District at the time of the study; enrollment had remained stable for the prior 10 years. The district was comprised of one early childhood center that supports preschool and kindergarten students, five elementary schools, one middle school, and one high school. The demographics of the district were roughly similar to that of the state in terms of race/ethnicity, ELL status, and special education with the exception of the population of African-American students (3.5%), which was below the state average.

Table 1

Student Demographics of the District and State

| Category | % of District | % of State |
|----------------------------|---------------|------------|
| African-American | 3.5 | 8.8 |
| Asian | 6.5 | 6.5 |
| Hispanic | 16.4 | 18.6 |
| White | 70.8 | 62.7 |
| Multi-Race, Non-Hispanic | 2.7 | 3.2 |
| ELL Status | 8.3 | 9.0 |
| Special Education | 20.1 | 17.2 |
| Economically Disadvantaged | 40.5 | 27.4 |

However, there were significant variances in the student demographics by elementary school. While one elementary school was more than 85% white, 13.5% economically disadvantaged, and had no ELL students, another school was less than 65% white, with over 66% economically disadvantaged and 39% ELL students. Although the range of diversity of particular neighborhoods played a significant role in the differences between schools, a district program that bused all elementary ELL students in the community to one school for service delivery was also a contributing factor.

Accountability levels. There was also a variance in accountability levels based on state testing data. The table below shows that individual schools in the district ranged from Level 1, the highest rank in the state accountability system, to Level 3, which involves state involvement to improve the achievement of students.

Table 2

School Type and Accountability Levels

| Type | Title One Status | Accountability Level |
|-----------------|------------------|----------------------|
| Early Childhood | Yes | N/A |
| Elementary 1 | No | Level 1 |
| Elementary 2 | Yes | Level 1 |
| Elementary 3 | Yes | Level 2 |
| Elementary 4 | No | Level 1 |
| Elementary 5 | Yes | Level 3 |
| Middle | Yes | Level 2 |
| High | No | Level 3 |

Teacher demographics. Compared to state averages, the district had a highly qualified teaching staff with 99.7% of teachers licensed in their teaching area, which was higher than the state average. However, the racial/ethnic diversity of the teaching staff did not match the student demographics. The racial/ethnic diversity of the teacher population in the district was also below the state average. The table below shows the comparison:

Table 3

Teacher and Student Demographics of the District

| Category | % of Students | % of Teachers |
|--------------------------|---------------|---------------|
| African-American | 3.5 | 1 |
| Asian | 6.5 | 0 |
| Hispanic | 16.4 | 2 |
| White | 70.8 | 96 |
| Multi-Race, Non-Hispanic | 2.7 | 1 |

One-third of the teachers were under the age of 40; only 6% were under the age of 26. This lack of youth in the teaching staff was likely, in part, due to the low levels of teacher turnover in the district. The teacher retention rate is over 92%, higher than the state average of 87%. Another factor that may explain the lack of young teachers is that many of the novice teachers

interviewed had worked for a few years in other districts (many of them in urban centers) prior to coming to this more suburban district.

District spending. At the time of the study, the district spent approximately \$13,000 per pupil, which is about 11% less than the state average. Beyond aggregated, per pupil spending, a closer look into how financial resources were utilized shows which aspects of the district expenditures were prioritized. For instance, per pupil spending on administration was 34% less than the state average, while per pupil spending on professional development was actually 10% above the state average. Per pupil spending on special education, both in terms of in-district and out-of-district costs, was well above the state average, while per pupil spending on instructional materials and technology was barely over half the state average.

Leadership turnover. The leadership team in the district had undergone a significant amount of turnover in the years prior to the research study. The superintendent was in his first year in the role after spending the previous year as the interim superintendent. Prior to this appointment, he was a principal in the district. The School Committee's vote for him to become the permanent superintendent was by a narrow margin.

Out of the eight principals in the district, five were in their first two years in this role in their schools. While many had worked in other positions in the district prior to entering their current role, this significant turnover undoubtedly had implications for the district leadership team. In addition, the director of teaching and learning was in his first year in the district in that role. The leadership team of principals and central office leaders whose work was connected to teaching and learning included a majority of members who were relatively new to their roles.

Also worth noting was that a district improvement plan intended to guide the next three years of work was presented and adopted by the local school committee while this research project was being conducted. The plan included six strategic objectives:

- All Individual Education Plans (IEPs) will include goals and objectives based on student data in order to address targeted student needs;
- Identify an inclusionary model for consideration in the district;
- Create and implement a curriculum review cycle for all grades/content areas;
- Establish a district-wide Professional Development (PD) Team;
- Create a long-range district-wide Professional Development plan that emphasizes peer-led opportunities;
- Address the social and emotional needs of all students.

Participant selection. The participants for this study included eleven novice teachers who were in their second and third year of working in the district. Participants also included seven principals and four central office administrators who support novice teachers' development. First year teachers were not included in the study because the timing of the data collection occurred early in their initial year in the district. All participants were selected using a strategy of purposeful sampling, which Maxwell (2009) describes as "a strategy in which particular settings, persons, or events are deliberately selected for the important information they can provide that cannot be gotten as well from other choices" (p. 235).

In the Commonwealth of Massachusetts, in order to earn Professional Teacher Status a teacher must have successfully served in the same school district for three successive school years under an appropriate license. While the length of probationary periods for new teachers vary by state, in this study we focused on novice teachers in their second or third year in the

Columbia Public Schools who did not have many years of teaching experience in other districts prior coming to the district. Seven principals were also included in the participant pool because they are the primary evaluators and supporters of novice teachers. Additionally, they construct the environment in which the novice works and directly influence the experiences of the novice teacher. Finally, four central office administrators were selected because they typically develop the induction processes and policies for novice teachers.

Every effort was made to select a teacher participant group that was demographically representative of the race, gender, and K-12 grade levels of novice teachers in the district. Novice teacher participants were demographically representative of the district's teachers in terms of gender and school level. 27% of subjects were male, which aligned to the district total of 20% and 5/11 teachers were secondary, while 6/11 teachers were elementary. The team conducted twenty-two interviews: eleven interviews of novice teachers in their second or third year in the district and eleven interviews of these teachers' school principals and district leaders. The research team divided into mixed pairs of males and females to complete the interviews. The goal of selecting a target of 22 participants was to seek the point of saturation where "no new relevant data are discovered [and] categories are well developed and validated" (Rudestam & Newton, 2007, p. 108). "Generally speaking, the longer, more detailed, and intensive the transcripts, the fewer the number of participants. In practice, this may mean specifying a range between 5 and 30 participants" (Rudestam & Newton, 2007, p. 108). As Miles and Huberman (1994) point out, a qualitative researcher must be careful to "set boundaries: to define aspects of your case that you can study within the limits of your time and means" (p. 27).

Data Collection

In a case study, “The researcher is the primary instrument of data collection and analysis” (Merriam, 2009, p. 52). As the primary instrument, the research team collected data from interviews with novice teachers, principals, and central office administrators. Additionally, we utilized data collected from documents related to leadership and novice teachers. Finally, the research team collected data from field notes, which are typed or recorded reflections that captured our thoughts and feelings when we reviewed documents or visited a school to conduct an interview with a teacher or school leader.

Interviews. Interviews were semi-structured, open-ended, recorded, and conducted in person by one or two members of the research team (Merriam, 2009). The interviews aimed to provide “concrete,” “holistic,” and “lifelike” (Merriam, 2009, p. 44) information that can often only be gathered through case study research. The research team gathered a robust set of data to support the main research questions of the larger study as well as individual study questions. Interviews were transcribed by members of the research team and completed by an outside transcription service. The interviews were designed to learn about leadership characteristics that are perceived to have the greatest influence on novice teacher job satisfaction. The development of interview questions was informed by the relevant literature. The team developed an interview protocol for novice teachers (see Appendix B) and building/district leadership (see Appendix C). We tested interview questions on a convenience sample of novice teachers, building leaders, and central office leaders who were not members of the study to ensure questions were clear and yielded useful data.

Document review. Having used purposeful sampling to select interview participants, we also used the same method to select documents for review. According to Creswell (2012),

documents alongside interviews can serve as a useful source of data for qualitative studies. The standard for selecting documents was rooted in the purpose of the study. Therefore, the main criterion for document selection was the information they can provide concerning the manner in which leadership influences the job satisfaction of novice teachers and the ways in which novice teachers perceive leadership. When analyzed in combination with participant interviews, documents assisted in triangulating data and allowed us to develop a more informed, accurate, and substantiated understanding of the job satisfaction of novice teachers and the role of leaders in this process. These documents included:

School documents.

- School improvement plans for alignment with district mission and school-based priorities

District documents.

- District improvement plan
- Mentor agenda
- New teacher orientation agenda and induction materials
- Negotiated teacher contract

Field notes. Field notes were also used as a data source in this study. Yin (2009) describes field notes as being used to document descriptions about what was happening at the time of the interviews and what the researcher was thinking during specific time periods or at specific locations or events.

Data Analysis

As data were collected from documents, interviews, and field notes, a number of strategies were employed for analysis. The first step in data analysis involved an examination of

school and district documents related to leadership and novice teachers. This document analysis occurred prior to interviews and provided the research team an opportunity to analyze school and district documents using a set of a priori codes developed from a review of the literature. This allowed the research team to learn more about the school district prior to interviewing novice teachers, and school leaders. These codes included such items as leadership, job satisfaction, school culture, empowerment, belonging, feedback, supervision, or humility. The research team then began the data analysis process and identification of themes, document inferences, and findings in August 2015 (see study timeline in Appendix A).

The process of document analysis proceeded as follows. First, as each document was identified, we examined it using a set of a priori codes developed from the literature. For example, does the document demonstrate the importance of valuing people or humility on the part of school leaders? As Maxwell (2009) suggests, codes “may be derived from existing theory, inductively generated during the research, or drawn from the categories of the people studied” (Maxwell, 2009, p. 237). Then, after the first document was analyzed and coded, a second document was reviewed for a similar set of codes or new ones. As additional documents were found and analyzed, we consistently compared codes found in each individual document in order to ultimately generate a common set of themes that sliced across the data. This step-by-step, real time approach to data analysis is consistent with Merriam’s (2009) recommendation that data analysis should be “conducted along with (not after) data collection” (p. 269). These codes were shared with all researchers and all research data was stored using the Dedoose software program.

After analyzing documents and developing a common set of codes, the team then conducted interviews with novice teachers, school, and district leaders. We analyzed interviews

using the same set of a set of a priori codes used for document analysis. After interviewing the first novice teacher, one member of the research team analyzed and coded the interview. Then, another member of the research team went through the same document and independently coded it. The two members of the research team then compared their analysis and any discrepancies were referred to a third team member for resolution. This process contributed to inter-rater agreement, but also opened the possibility of a new code that would be agreed upon by all three members of the research team. Then, the transcript of another interview with a different novice teacher was also-analyzed in the same way for similar codes or new ones. As additional interviews with novice teachers, mentor teachers, and school/district leaders occurred, the team consistently compared codes found in each interview to generate a common set of themes and to generate new codes that emerged from the data.

After analyzing documents and interviews, we analyzed field notes developed during the process of reviewing documents and interviewing novice teachers and school and district leadership at their schools. The field notes served as a record of ideas and feelings generated during the process of visiting a school to conduct interviews or during the process of document review. The field notes included interactions between novice teachers, school, and district leadership as well as the physical environment of classrooms, offices, and buildings. These notes were analyzed and coded in the same way as the documents and interviews. Therefore, one member of the research team analyzed the first field note using a priori codes gathered from the literature. Then, another member of the research team also went through the same set of field notes and independently coded it. The two members of the research team then compared their analysis and discrepancies were referred to a third team member for resolution. After analyzing the first field note, the research team analyzed the second field note for similar codes and new

ones. As more field notes were analyzed, we continually compared codes found in the separate field notes with the goal of producing a common set of themes.

Additionally, in an effort to triangulate data, themes that emerged from documents, interviews, and field notes were compared. Thus, data analysis involved a comparison of themes found between novice teachers and school leaders as well as themes found between documents, interviews, and field notes. By analyzing data in this fashion, the team was able to develop a cohesive and insightful understanding about how leadership influences the job satisfaction of novice teachers (see Figure 3).

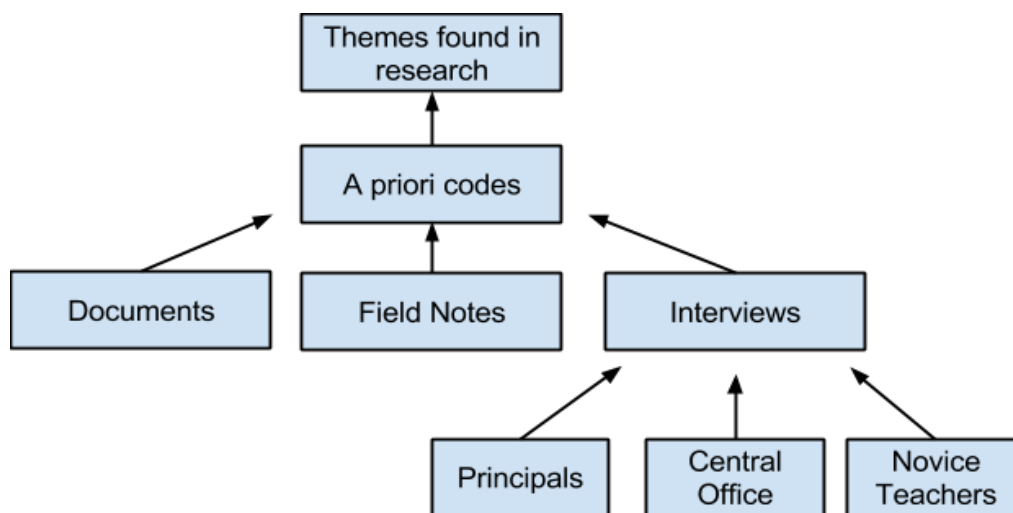


Figure 3. Diagram of data analysis. This figure illustrates the sources and process of data analysis.

Another technique used for the analysis of documents, interviews, and field notes was the creation of visual displays to help organize the data and make clear connections. Maxwell describes the use of visual displays as a tool to help “facilitate thinking about relationships in data and make ideas and analyses visible and retrievable” (Maxwell, 2009, p. 239). This approach to data analysis made assumptions more evident by requiring the research team to outwardly organize its thoughts and connections. The process of continuous conversation about

the data and the group coding process also reduced the chances of unforeseen bias in the conclusions drawn from the research.

Finally, the research team analyzed data by asking team members to play the role of contrarian. Rudestam and Newton (2007) describe this method as one where colleagues ask “tough questions about . . . data analysis and data interpretation to keep the researcher honest” (p. 115). An important advantage of being part of a research team is the opportunity for some members to play the role of contrarian in order to challenge codes, themes, and conclusions developed from documents and interviews. While the team approach to coding data and developing themes should assist in developing valid ideas, asking members to explicitly play the role of contrarian can be an important way to avoid groupthink and insure the development of logical and defensible conclusions.

Authenticity and Trustworthiness of the Data

The authenticity and trustworthiness of data collected for this study were maximized through the process of maintaining an audit trail. Rudestam and Newton (2007) describe an audit trail as “keeping a meticulous record of the process of the study so that others can recapture steps and reach the same conclusion” (p. 114). The audit included not just a list of objective steps but also encompassed “the ongoing inner thoughts, hunches, and reactions of the [team]” (Rudestam & Newton, 2007, p. 114). In doing so, the audit trail provided a strong level of transparency and credibility to the study.

Individual Biases

In an effort to minimize potential research biases, we preemptively disclosed any associations with the selected school district or individuals who were part of the sample prior to research in the district. The members of the research team also disclosed their current roles and

school district affiliation to participants in the study. Additionally, we aimed to minimize bias by interviewing participants in pairs, coding interviews as a team, and maintaining an audit trail.

The research team is composed of six current educational administrators serving in both public and private schools located in New England. The group has a range of different educational experiences ranging from work teaching in elementary, middle, and high school to serving as assistant principals, principals, and assistant superintendents in their various schools and districts. The team is evenly divided between three men and three women.

Ethical Treatment of Participants

In line with the recommendations of the National Institute of Health, the relationship between researchers and participants in the study were based on “honesty, trust, and respect” (National Institute of Health, 2014). To this end, the three core principles of the Belmont Report, respect for persons, beneficence, and justice, produced by the National Commission for the Protection of Human Subjects of Biomedical and Behavioral Research, served as the ethical grounding of this study (National Institute of Health, 2014).

Research participants were respected during the course of the study. They were required to provide informed consent prior to participation and at no point in time was an individual allowed to participate or continue to be a part of the study if we believed they did not fully understand all of the information communicated to them during the process of informed consent. Participation was on a volunteer basis and contributors did not receive compensation for their contribution. At any point during the interview process, participants were able to withdraw from being a part of the study and were informed of this right prior to the interview. Additionally, we made every effort to explain the information shared during informed consent in a way that was easy to comprehend for all participants.

The well being of the research participants remained at the forefront of the study. We aimed to maximize possible benefits and minimize possible harms to individuals who participated in the study (National Institute of Health, 2014). While the potential harms appeared to be minor, the team strived to organize and conduct the study in a way to minimize possible economic, social, legal or psychological harm to participants. In particular, the research team was attentive to the circumstances that could place a novice teacher at risk of losing his job or being ostracized by the school community. As relatively new members of the school district, novice teachers have reduced job security as compared to their veteran colleagues. Therefore, the research team strived to be attuned to these unique circumstances surrounding the experience of novice teachers and worked toward conducting the study and presenting the data to district leaders in a way that protected them from potential repercussions.

Finally, in line with recommendations of the Belmont Report, justice was a third core ethical guiding principle of the study. No individual who was a novice teacher, principal or central office administrator was excluded from participation in this study. In particular, no ethnic or religious minorities were excluded. The process of selecting research participants was open and transparent with a direct invitation emailed to all novice teachers employed in the school district.

Given the confidential and personal nature of gathered information, study data were protected. One method employed to strengthen the privacy of the study was to keep the identity of individuals and their schools anonymous. Each participant and school was labeled with a pseudonym and any connection between the pseudonym and identity of the individual or school was stored in a secure file. This protected participants from possible economic or social harm should anyone be dissatisfied with statements included in the study or its overall findings.

Technology, including the online software program Dedoose, was used to assist in the coding, storing, organization, management, and analysis of the data during the study. Interview transcripts, observation field notes, and artifacts were safely examined and stored using software and Boston College-provided safe space. Predetermined pseudonyms were also developed.

Each research team member utilized these methods in similar ways in their individual study. The following chapter features the individual research questions, a literature review related to those questions, and any methods that were unique to the individual study. Additionally, the findings and discussion sections of the individual study are included.

CHAPTER 3³

Individual Study: The Influence of Servant Leadership on Job Satisfaction

This individual study explored the influence of servant leadership on the job satisfaction of novice teachers. Two main research questions guided this research: 1) How do school leaders perceive the role of servant leadership in the development of novice teacher job satisfaction? 2) In what way(s) if any, do novice teachers attribute job satisfaction to servant leadership?

Servant leadership is defined as “an understanding and practice of leadership that places the good of those led over the self-interest of the leader” (Laub, 1999, p. 81). The first research question aimed to investigate how school leaders perceive the role of servant leadership in the development of novice teacher job satisfaction. The goal of this research question was to describe and better understand how school leaders view servant leadership’s influence on novice teachers’ job satisfaction. Using one Massachusetts school district as the setting for the research, I hoped to learn whether or not school leaders perceived their role as including servant leadership and then also provide an illustration of how school leadership viewed the influence of servant leadership on novice teacher job satisfaction.

The second research question explored in what way(s), if any, novice teachers attributed their job satisfaction to servant leadership. The goal of this question was to describe and provide insight into how servant leadership influences the job satisfaction of novice teachers. Therefore, the purpose of this second research question was to illuminate how novice teachers viewed the influence of servant leadership on their job satisfaction.

The significance of these research questions rests in their contribution to the broader issue of novice teacher turnover and job satisfaction. Considering the impact of novice teacher attrition on student achievement, educational reform, and district budgets (Darling-Hammond,

³ This chapter was written individually by Mark F. McManmon

2000a; Hanushek, 1992; Huang & Moon, 2009; Huling, Resta, & Yeargain, 2012; Ingersoll & Smith, 2003; Murnane & Phillips, 1981; Perda, 2013; Wynn, Carboni, & Patall, 2007), exploring the influence of servant leadership from the perspective of school leaders and novice teachers could help reduce novice teacher attrition and improve the performance of schools. Additionally, these research questions address a gap in the literature related to the relationship between servant leadership and novice teachers. While some studies have examined servant leadership and the job satisfaction of teachers, there is no research related to servant leadership and the job satisfaction of novice teachers. There is also a lack of qualitative research on servant leadership and job satisfaction. Most studies only rely on quantitative, self-reporting surveys and little qualitative research exists to better describe and more deeply understand the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction. Thus, these research questions address two different gaps in the literature and will hopefully advance a better understanding of novice teacher job satisfaction and how school leaders may or may not reduce turnover through the practice of servant leadership.

Relationship of the Individual Study to the Group Research

The group research explored the influence of school and central office leadership on the job satisfaction of novice teachers. Using the different lenses of distributive, central office, instructional, servant, school culture and social justice leadership, the research team explored how these different styles of leadership influenced novice teacher job satisfaction.

Servant leadership is a specific style of leadership that is defined as “an understanding and practice of leadership that places the good of those led over the self-interest of the leader” (Laub, 1999, p. 81). This question relates to the team research in two important ways. First, as a distinct theory of leadership, it provides a unique perspective to the larger research. While social

justice leadership documents the influence of providing equitable opportunities for all students on novice teacher job satisfaction and instructional leadership studies the influence of supervision and evaluation on novice teacher job satisfaction, servant leadership explores the job satisfaction of novice teachers when their leaders value people, act with humility, behave ethically, and empower followers. Therefore, servant leadership contributes to a richer set of the larger study's findings and hopefully provides more critical insight into how leadership influences novice teachers.

A second way servant leadership relates to the larger research study is its potential efficacy as an approach to leadership. Servant leadership has been researched in both the fields of business and education to examine concepts such as job satisfaction, employee dedication, turnover, and customer service (Ehrhart, 2004; Hebert, 2003; Jaramillo, Grisaffe, Chonko, and Roberts, 2009a). A review of the literature suggests servant leadership has a positive influence on the job satisfaction of employees (Cerit, 2009; Hebert, 2003; Miears, 2004; Shaw & Newton, 2014). Therefore, given the overarching aim of the team research project, servant leadership provided useful insights into how leadership can influence the job satisfaction of novice teachers. Combined with the findings of other leadership styles, servant leadership can help educational leaders make better sense of the role they play in the job satisfaction of novice teachers.

The Concept of Servant Leadership

The concept of servant leadership began with the work of Robert Greenleaf (1970) who maintains that the “great leader is seen as a servant first” (p. 2). A servant leader “make[s] sure that other people’s highest priority needs are being served” (p. 6). He articulates the concept as follows:

The best test [of servant leadership], and difficult to administer, is: Do those served

grow as persons? Do they, while being served, become healthier, wiser, freer, more autonomous, more likely themselves to become servants? (p. 6).

While Greenleaf (1970) developed the modern concept of servant leadership, a common understanding of its precise components is still a source of discussion in peer-reviewed literature (Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006; van Dierendonck, 2011; Spears, 1995; Winston, 2004). As Liden, Wayne, Zhao, and Henderson (2008) point out, “The servant leadership literature offers an inconsistent set of dimensions that define this construct” (p. 162). Thus, clarifying these dimensions more accurately and elaborately addresses a gap in the research.

Beginning with the work of Spears (1995), servant leadership has been defined and understood in a number of different ways. Spears identified ten characteristics of the servant leader that ranged from “listening” and “empathy” to “building community” and “commitment to the growth of people” (pp. 6-7). Barbuto and Wheeler (2006) noted “altruistic calling” and “wisdom” (p. 318) as unique traits, and van Dierendonck (2011) found that characteristics such as “humility,” “interpersonal acceptance” and “empowering and developing people” (p. 1241) were key elements of the concept. Yet, despite the lack of consensus, the qualities of humility, valuing people, behaving ethically, and empowering followers continue to emerge from the literature as core attributes of servant leadership (van Dierendonck, 2011; Ehrhart, 2004; Laub, 1999; Washington, Sutton, and Feild, 2006). While Greenleaf (1970) did not explicitly define servant leadership in these terms, researchers trying to operationalize the concept have situated these attributes at the heart of the servant leadership model and offer a unique form of leading that differs from other approaches (van Dierendonck, 2011; Ehrhart, 2004; Laub, 1999; Washington et al., 2006).

Humility

One hallmark of servant leadership is an emphasis on humility. According to van Dierendonck (2011), humility “refers to the ability to put one’s own accomplishments and talents in a proper perspective” (p. 1233). Since servant leadership places an emphasis on serving others, humility is a core value because the emphasis is not on the accomplishments of the leader but on the success of the followers. Additionally, humility helps servant leaders make wise decisions because they are aligned with their strengths and weaknesses (Dierendonck & Nuijten, 2011). Therefore, servant leaders are open to feedback and advice from different members of the organization (Shaw & Newton, 2014). As ego can sometimes stand in the way of making good decisions, humility helps servant leaders see beyond themselves and look to the good of the people they work with in the organization.

Valuing People

A second important trait of servant leadership is the importance of valuing people. A distinguishing quality of servant leadership is the emphasis on respect and regard for followers. From the point of view of servant leadership, people are not a means to an end, but are valuable individuals to be nurtured and developed to their greatest potential. Starratt (2012) refers to this approach as an ethic of care, which entails “a level of caring that honors the dignity and integrity of each person and desires to see that person enjoy a fully human life” (p. 36). Ehrhart (2004) points out, “servant leaders... view the development of the follower as an end in and of itself, not merely a means to reach the leader’s or organization’s goals” (p. 69). Therefore, servant leaders strive to “build up others through encouragement and affirmation” (Laub, 1999, p. 83) and avoid using or taking advantage of them. Thus, servant leaders view followers as unique and valuable people who should be given the highest level of respect and supported to achieve their own full

potential. As Jaramillo et al. (2009a) observe, there are “several core principles of servant leadership” but one very important one is “the belief that all people have dignity and worth” (p. 261).

Behaving Ethically

A third trait of servant leadership is behaving ethically. Servant leaders strive to act with honesty and integrity in their interactions with others (Jaramillo, Grisaffe, Chonko, & Roberts, 2009b; Liden et al., 2008; Washington et al., 2006). With a strong emphasis on valuing people, servant leaders believe in the importance of being straightforward and principled as a way of valuing followers and treating them with respect.

Stone, Russell, and Patterson (2004) suggest servant leadership is a more ethical form of leadership because it is less likely to manipulate or exploit followers. Walumbwa, Hartnell, and Oke (2010) point out that because “servant leaders act in the best interest of the follower, [it precludes] manipulative, self-interested behavior” (p. 518). The consistent emphasis on the well being and care of followers helps to insulate it from the danger of exploiting or using people in a dishonest and deceitful way.

Empowering Followers

A final element of servant leadership is empowering followers. Van Dierendonck (2011) describes this aspect of servant leadership as aiming to “foster a proactive, self confident attitude among followers [that] gives them a sense of personal power” (pp. 1232-1233). Empowerment can be both structural and psychological. According to Kanter (1977), as discussed by Laschinger, Finegan, Shamian, and Wilk (2004), structural empowerment entails “creating conditions [whereby] employees have access to the information, support, and resources necessary to accomplish work” (Laschinger et al, 2004, p. 528). Psychological empowerment, on

the other hand, is different and refers “to a process whereby an individual’s belief in his or her self-efficacy is enhanced” (Conger & Kanungo, 1988, p. 474). The core difference between structural empowerment and psychological empowerment is that structural empowerment puts in place the conditions for empowering followers while psychological empowerment involves increased levels of self-efficacy. Spreitzer (1995) describes psychological empowerment as an “active, rather than a passive, orientation to a work role. By active orientation, I mean an orientation in which an individual wishes and feels able to shape his or her work role and context” (p. 1444). Like behaving ethically, the desire to empower others is rooted in a servant leader’s belief in the value of people (Dierendonck & Nuijten, 2011). If people are truly important, then a servant leader wants to help them achieve their full potential (Sendjaya & Sarros, 2002). Rather than micromanage and control followers, servant leaders hope to empower and develop them into independent, self-assured people, who can think for themselves and ultimately become servant leaders.

Additionally, servant leaders do not desire high levels of personal acknowledgement or credit for success. Instead, they hope to share the credit for success with followers. Therefore, the emphasis in servant leadership on the importance of humility dovetails with the concept of empowerment. A humble servant leader is happy to empower followers because servant leaders are not interested in high levels of personal recognition. They only want to see their followers reach their full potential.

Servant Leadership and Job Satisfaction

Non-Educational Organizations

In the past 15 years, numerous empirical studies have documented the influence of servant leadership. In the area of non-educational organizations, Hebert (2003) found servant

leadership influenced the job satisfaction of employees. Using data collected from 136 participants employed in 12 different organizations ranging from the public to the private sector with the majority of participants being employees of the local or federal government, Hebert found “the greater the degree that workers perceive servant leadership traits in their organization, the greater the level of job satisfaction among the workforce that can be expected” (p. 101). When servant leaders exercise humility, behave ethically, empower others, and value their employees, employees feel a higher level of job satisfaction.

Irving (2005) arrived at a similar finding in a study aimed at investigating the relationship between servant leadership and the effectiveness of teams. Using a sample of 317 employees at the U.S. division of an international non-profit, Irving found there was a “highly significant ($p = .000$) and substantial ($r = .522$)” (p. 65) correlation between servant leadership and team effectiveness. While this does not suggest higher levels of job satisfaction, a secondary finding of Irving’s research showed there was a “positive relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction” (p. 72). The results of this research echo the findings of Hebert (2003) and further confirm the positive influence of servant leadership on the job satisfaction of employees.

Mayer, Bardes, and Piccolo (2008) found a corresponding pattern in a study on servant leadership and follower need satisfaction, which they defined as feelings of autonomy, competence, and connection at work. Using a sample of 187 undergraduate students at a university located in the Southeast, the researchers asked participants to reflect on their current or most recent job while completing a survey connected to servant leadership and follower need satisfaction. Their analysis concluded that there is “a direct relationship between servant leadership and follower need satisfaction” (p. 192). In fact, they found “leaders play an important role in satisfying follower needs and ultimately improving job satisfaction” (p. 192). This work is

significant because it further supports the positive influence of servant leadership on employee job satisfaction.

Another study conducted by Jaramillo et al. (2009b) reinforces the work of Hebert (2003), Irving (2005) and Mayer et al. (2008) by highlighting ways servant leadership influences the turnover intentions of salespeople from a variety of industries ranging from financial services and insurance to healthcare and manufacturing. In a quantitative study of 501 salespeople, Jaramillo et al. (2009b) found servant leaders “help create a positive work climate in which salespeople feel... more committed to the firm, and thus express a deeper desire to stay” (p. 358). Thus research suggests that servant leadership can influence job satisfaction and turnover in a variety of occupations.

In another study using the same data set, Jaramillo et al. (2009a) found servant leadership led to “higher levels of customer orientation” (p. 268) in salespeople who perceived their supervisor as a servant leader. While the main finding of this study does not suggest servant leadership leads to higher levels of job satisfaction or retention, a minor finding does suggest servant leadership may have a more powerful influence on novice teachers. In analyzing the data, Jaramillo et al. found “the impact of servant leadership on customer orientation is greater for less-experienced salespeople” (p. 268). They suggest this may be the case because “less-experienced salespeople” (p. 268) are new and more open to guidance. Therefore, the conclusions of this study suggest servant leadership may also have a strong influence on novice teachers who are at the beginning of their careers and possibly more open to guidance. Yet, like Hebert (2003), Irving (2005), and Mayer et al. (2008), the research methodology used in these two studies is quantitative. While this research suggests a correlation between servant leadership and novice teacher satisfaction, it does not offer a richer description or deeper understanding of

how servant leadership influences the job satisfaction of employees, which is the critical question that informs this research.

Educational Organizations

Public School Research. In a break from the purely quantitative studies found in non-educational organizations, Thompson (2005) conducted a mixed-methods study analyzing the leadership styles of four school superintendents named Superintendents of the Year, by the local state chapters of the American Association of School Administrators (AASA). His research found these superintendents perceived themselves as servant leaders. Additionally, a survey of 28 other administrators, who worked with these four superintendents, also perceived these superintendents as servant leaders. The results of this study are important because Thompson found a strong relationship between the four superintendents recognized by the state chapters of the AASA as outstanding educational leaders and the practice of servant leadership. It does not mean teachers in their school districts had higher levels of job satisfaction, but it does suggest an overlap between professionally recognized school leaders and the qualities of servant leadership.

While Thompson highlights the connection between high quality superintendents and servant leadership, Miears (2004) builds on Thompson's work by directly pointing out the influence school leaders can have on the job satisfaction of teachers. In a survey of 15 high schools and 1,526 teachers in Texas, Miears found "teachers are more satisfied with their jobs when servant leadership is present" (p. 86). In fact, the "higher the level of servant leadership perceived by the participant, the higher the level of job satisfaction felt" (p. 84). This research is meaningful, because it shows that teachers may perceive servant leadership as an effective form of school leadership. While other research makes the connection between servant leadership and

job satisfaction in the non-educational setting, Miears demonstrates this connection also exists in schools.

Shaw and Newton (2014) echoed these findings in their study of 234 teachers from 15 high schools across one state, suggesting there was “a significant positive correlation... between teachers’ perceptions of their principals’ level of servant leadership and teachers’ job satisfaction ($r = .83, p < .02$)” (p. 104). They found teachers were more likely to stay at their current school when the principal was perceived to be a servant leader. In fact, teachers who intended to leave their schools reported perceiving their school principal as a weak servant leader.

Religious School Research. Research into servant leadership and job satisfaction in religiously affiliated schools suggests a similar pattern to that found in public schools. In a mixed-methods study, Anderson (2005) examined the relationship between servant leadership and the job satisfaction of teachers. Using a sample of 145 administrators and 285 teachers working full time in religious education at Mormon Churches in Utah, Anderson found a “significantly positive correlation between . . . the principles of servant leadership and individual employee job satisfaction” (p. 93). While the study discovered a positive correlation for many different attributes of servant leadership, Anderson found the correlation was highest for valuing people ($r = .718$). The results of this study reinforce the findings of Miears (2004) and Shaw & Newton (2014) and further substantiate the idea that servant leadership might positively influence teacher job satisfaction.

Winston (2004) also showed that servant leadership improved employee “morale and performance” (p. 615) at a small Bible college in North Carolina. In a qualitative study using semi-structured interviews and observations of faculty, staff, and administration, Winston found the servant leadership characteristics of the new school president contributed to an improvement

in the “general morale and performance of the organization” (p. 615). While job satisfaction and retention were not the main foci of the study, one participant described the new school president’s model of servant leadership as an influence on her desire to stay at the school. In an illustrative quote, she said, “I probably would not have stayed if it were not for the changes that [the new president] brought” (p. 612).

Van Tassell’s (2006) research at a Catholic, Franciscan University reflects a similar pattern. In a quantitative study using a sample of 166 participants, Van Tassell found “a moderately strong relationship between the perception of servant-leadership characteristics and job satisfaction” (p. 86). For approximately one-third of the study’s participants, “the more they perceived servant-leadership characteristics, the more likely they were to be satisfied with their jobs” (p. 86). The results of this study bolster the conclusions reached at other religiously affiliated schools by Winston (2004) and Anderson (2005). Overall, the more employees perceive school leaders as servant leaders, the more likely they are to be satisfied with their jobs.

International School Research. Outside of the United States, Cerit’s (2009) study of teachers in Turkey found a corresponding pattern of results to research conducted in the United States. Using a sample of 595 primary school teachers, Cerit found “there was a positive and significant relationship between servant leadership behaviours of principals and teachers’ job satisfaction” ($r = .764, p < 0.01$) (p. 613). In particular, Cerit found a strong relationship between teachers who perceived their principals to be authentic individuals who value them as teachers, and higher levels of job satisfaction.

In sum, although small, the body of research in both educational and non-educational organizations demonstrates a strong, positive relationship between servant leadership and the job satisfaction of employees. However, a gap in the literature can be found in the lack of qualitative

studies that examine how servant leadership specifically influences job satisfaction in public schools, especially for novice teachers. Given the high rate of novice teacher turnover, further exploring how servant leadership influences the job satisfaction of novice teachers could be valuable to the retention of novice teachers, the improvement of schools, and the body of research literature addressing this topic.

Methodology

Two research questions guided this investigation. First, how do school leaders perceive the role of servant leadership in the development of novice teacher job satisfaction? And second, in what way(s), if any, do novice teachers attribute job satisfaction to servant leadership? Given the nature of these research questions and the scarcity of rich description and deep understanding about these questions, the best approach to answering them is a qualitative case study.

Merriam (2009) defines a case study as “an in-depth description and analysis of a bounded system” (p. 40). In this research, I was interested in exploring the experience of novice teachers in one Massachusetts school district. Therefore, the parameters of the study were defined and limited. I was not looking at the experience of all teachers across the United States but rather just the experience of novice teachers in one school district. Merriam (2009) considers this type of specific focus to be “the single most defining characteristic of case study research” (p. 40).

Additionally, a case study was the best approach to answering my research questions because I was interested in providing a description of how servant leadership influences the job satisfaction of novice teachers. While Cerit (2009), Miears (2004), and Shaw and Newton (2014) studied the influence of servant leadership on the job satisfaction of teachers, their research was quantitative. Their studies involved self-reporting surveys and statistical analysis to determine if

a correlation existed between servant leadership and job satisfaction. The results of their research suggested a positive correlation between the two factors but their findings lacked a description of how that influence occurred or what it looked like. Case study research, on the other hand, provides a “holistic [and] lifelike” (Merriam, 2009, p. 44) description of the phenomenon. Merriam (2009) believes this is a significant strength of case study research. In the instance of my study, I was attracted to the notion of providing a description of the way servant leadership influenced the job satisfaction of novice teachers. While prior research suggests servant leadership has a positive influence on the job satisfaction of teachers, I wanted to see how and what this looked like in practice. What are the stories and experiences of novice teachers and school leaders in one particular school district in Massachusetts through the lens of servant leadership?

A third justification for conducting a case study to answer my research questions was the ability of case studies to “illuminate the reader’s understanding of the phenomenon under study” (Merriam, 2009, p. 44). Although multiple quantitative studies suggest servant leadership positively influences job satisfaction, these studies often provide dry, analytical findings. While a mathematical correlation was found to exist, there was very little in the way of deep insight or explanation. As Lareau (2000) points out, “quantitative studies... are in some ways ‘unnaturally’ straightforward” (p. 229) and their results do not always provide deep insight. Case studies, however, “illuminate the meanings people attach to their words and actions in a way not possible with other methodologies” (p. 229). Therefore, given my research questions, I believed a case study approach was most appropriate because I hoped to provide greater insight and understanding into how servant leadership influenced the job satisfaction of novice teachers. In

this way, I attempted to fill a gap in the research literature and hopefully provided a greater understanding of the phenomenon that was not illustrated in quantitative research.

Findings

School Leaders and Servant Leadership

My first research question investigated how school leaders perceived the role of servant leadership in the development of novice teacher job satisfaction. As was highlighted in the literature review, the four main attributes of servant leadership are demonstrating humility, valuing people, behaving ethically, and empowering followers. In what follows, I analyze key findings in each of these areas.

Humility. Humility is an element of servant leadership that can be defined as “the ability to put one’s own accomplishments and talents in a proper perspective” (van Dierendonck, 2011, p. 1233). All nine school building leaders and two of the four central office leaders perceived humility to be associated with the job satisfaction of novice teachers. For example, one school leader commented on how important it was for novice teachers to have a sense of humor about themselves and their work. He observed, “I think humor is really important. I always try to say to [novice teachers], if you can’t laugh, it’s going to be a very long year. We are all in the same boat...” This school leader underscores the importance of being humble and maintaining a proper sense of perspective. If novice teachers take themselves and their jobs too seriously, then the challenges and mistakes that naturally come with being a novice teacher can be demoralizing. The ability to laugh and to laugh at oneself undercuts conceit and hubris, which are the opposite of humility. It helps to reduce a sense of self-importance.

A different school leader offered a similar perspective. She believed it was important for school leaders to model humility as a way to show novice teachers that no one is perfect and it is

all right to make mistakes. She pointed out, “I’ve always gone to my faculty and said, ‘Oops! I’ve made a mistake.’ It happens. We all make mistakes.” A different school leader offered an almost identical view. She pointed out that on a regular basis she reminds faculty she does not have all of the answers to every emerging problem and that she will sometimes make mistakes. She noted, “I say... all the time... I don’t have all the answers and I’m not the most interesting woman you’re ever going to hear. I promise you I’m going to make mistakes.” This school leader captures the idea of humility because she appears self-effacing and honest about her own imperfections. Her willingness to admit to mistakes suggests she may be modest and unpretentious.

The importance of humility was more clearly voiced by another school leader who stated, “There’s not a hierarchy or anything [at the school]. There’s no job that I don’t do, that I wouldn’t do. If somebody got sick, I’ll clean it up. I mean that’s the reality of the job.” He goes on to point out, “If I was a teacher, I would want to know that anything I was asked to do, [school leaders] would be willing to do, that they are not just layering it on.” This example not only highlights the humility of this school leader but also demonstrates the inclination to serve followers, which is the core of servant leadership. Additionally, the combination of novice teachers practicing humility and school leadership practicing humility can create a powerful dynamic, where teachers are mindful of the big picture and school leaders model an openness of their own imperfections and set aside their ego to serve others in the school community regardless of title or position. In essence, this dynamic can contribute to a positive school culture where maintaining a healthy perspective on the practice of teaching and serving others is the norm of the school community.

Valuing People. Valuing people is an aspect of servant leadership defined as an emphasis on respect and regard for followers. Starratt (2012) refers to it as an ethic of care that involves “a level of caring that honors the dignity and integrity of each person...” (p. 36). Similar to humility, all eleven building and central office leaders perceived valuing people to be associated with the development of novice teacher job satisfaction. For example, when asked what elements of school leadership influence the job satisfaction of novice teachers, one school leader noted:

I think it's the personal touch . . . if my staff, novice or otherwise, doesn't see me or feel like on a personal basis they have the opportunity to check in and say hello, chat with an administrator, that's where we're going to lose folks.

When asked the same question, another school leader stated:

A welcoming environment. Feeling like you are part of a family. Having your questions answered. Having somebody available to answer those questions. You know, I think that those are the biggest things [that contribute to the job satisfaction of novice teachers].

These excerpts illustrate the importance school leaders place on making novice teachers feel valued. In their view, the job satisfaction of novice teachers is related to their work as school leaders to make them feel valued. As a result, all building and central office leaders throughout the district reported taking a number of concrete steps to value their novice teachers.

For example, one school leader strived to make novice teachers feel valued through the process of writing notes of affirmation. She pointed out:

I try to [write notes to] novice teachers within the first week. I try to do these consistently . . . I try to make sure I keep a Google spreadsheet of ‘Have I made sure that I've validated our new folks?’ [It is] something tangible and personal from the boss, for

lack of a better word, out to somebody new... I try to make sure early on that's something that comes from me in terms of supporting and validating.

Whether it is writing notes of affirmation, setting aside time for one-to-one conversations or going by a classroom to say hello, school leaders consistently perceived their attempts to value novice teachers as related to teacher job satisfaction.

Another school leader shared how the important work of making teachers feel valued went beyond just interpersonal relationships. She noted that one approach to making teachers feel valued included the organization of the budget. She observed:

I'll never ask for something if I know that somebody else needs something ahead of me. If someone says, 'I really want to participate in this opportunity,' we will shift money around appropriately to make sure that person can take advantage of it.

While this example highlights how school leaders strive to make novice teachers feel valued, it also illustrates how school leaders believe it is important to place the well being of others ahead of themselves. In this way, these school leaders modeled the essence of servant leadership.

A final school leader summed up the importance of valuing novice teachers when he remarked:

I think to feel valued is crucial in order for a [teacher] to be able to, especially after a hard day, get up and suck it in, and say okay, today's a new day and I'm going to do this and this is going to work.

Behaving Ethically. Behaving ethically is an element of servant leadership that involves acting with honesty and integrity towards novice teachers. Like valuing people, all building and central office leaders perceived behaving ethically as related to novice teachers' job satisfaction. One school leader felt ethical behavior towards novice teachers was important because honesty

helps strengthen the relationships between novice teachers and school leaders. He noted, “I think honest dialogue and just opening it up and asking questions and allowing them to ask you questions, that honest, open conversation, really goes a long way.” When asked if he thinks honesty influences the job satisfaction of novice teachers, he remarked, “Yes... I think it really makes them feel like they’re being listened to... [and] supported.” The views of this school leader capture the significance of honesty and also show how ethical behavior is interconnected to the valuing of others. When school administrators act with honesty and integrity, they create an atmosphere where novice teachers can ask questions, seek advice, and feel valued.

A different school leader also felt behaving ethically was important because he believed honest feedback was crucial to helping novice teachers improve their practice. He observed:

I think it is really important to be honest... I don’t think that it helps anybody to beat around the bush. There are those times when you have to have some difficult conversations or even to tell somebody ‘These are things that I’d like you to work on to get better.’

Empowering Followers. Empowering followers is an aspect of servant leadership, which aims to “foster a proactive, self-confident attitude among followers [that] gives them a sense of personal power” (van Dierendonck, 2011, pp. 1232-1233). It also can be understood in terms of both structural and psychological empowerment whereby structural empowerment involves putting in place the conditions to empower novice teachers by offering them “the information, support, and resources necessary to accomplish work” (Laschinger et al, 2004, p. 528). Psychological empowerment, on the other hand, entails increasing the self-efficacy of novice teachers and helping them embrace an “active, rather than a passive, orientation... in which an individual wishes and feels able to shape his or her work role and context” (Spreitzer, 1995, p.

1444). Just as humility, valuing people, and behaving ethically were perceived by school leaders to be connected to novice teacher job satisfaction, empowerment was also seen by all seven building level leaders and three of the four central office leaders as associated with it as well. In the Columbia School District, school leaders did not directly use the term empowerment to describe the new teacher induction program, the mentoring program, or observational feedback; yet as school leaders talked about these programs in interviews and as documents were reviewed, the data suggest school leaders implicitly perceived these programs to be a method of empowering novice teachers by giving them the skills, knowledge, and strategies necessary to be confident and successful in the classroom.

The new teacher induction program, which involved meetings prior to the start of the school year and ongoing professional development symposia with the superintendent, was one way all building and central office leaders believed they were empowering novice teachers. Documents from the program suggest school leaders perceived themselves to be empowering novice teachers through a variety of articles, discussions, and opportunities to reflect. For example, novice teachers spent time reading and reflecting on “Six Common Lesson Planning Pitfalls” and “18 Tips for Managing Your Time.” The ongoing symposia provided novice teachers with an opportunity to connect with other novice teachers and the district superintendent as well. By providing teachers with pedagogical strategies and tools, school leaders were structurally empowering novice teachers by providing them with “the information, support, and resources necessary to accomplish” their job (Laschinger et al, 2004, p. 528). However, in terms of psychological empowerment, it was not clear if school leaders perceived themselves to be increasing the self-efficacy of novice teachers or providing them with the power to “shape [their] work role and context” (Spreitzer, 1995, p. 1444).

Another approach perceived by all building and central office leaders as a method of empowering novice teachers was the mentoring program. District documents suggest that in the Columbia school district the novice teacher mentoring program aimed to pair experienced teachers with those who were new to the district. The agenda from the district's mentoring workshop reviewed mentors' roles and responsibilities, the process for conducting effective observations, and protocols for engaging in difficult conversations. This document, therefore, suggests school leaders regarded the mentoring program as an indirect way to empower novice teachers. Though the mentor-training program did not directly empower novice teachers, it was perceived to indirectly influence them through the development of well-trained mentors, who would ultimately be able to offer novice teachers, advice, information, and support to be successful. In this sense, school leaders were structurally empowering novice teachers by way of the mentoring program. Ultimately, the work of the mentors was viewed to have a positive influence on novice teachers' job satisfaction.

Observational feedback and encouragement was a third method school leaders believed empowered novice teachers. One school leader talked about how she worked to empower novice teachers with a very, hands-on approach. She stated:

I'm in contact with [novice teachers] all the time. I'm a very visible principal. I'm very involved in what they do in their work. I collect work folders, or work samples of student work, so I can see what they're doing, and have really good discussions about the curriculum, individual students, so if I see what they're working on I may have an activity that says, 'Hey, Let's try this.' I'm very involved...

In the view of this school leader, she was empowering novice teachers by coaching and working closely with them. While it may appear the school leader was perhaps micro-managing her novice teachers, she perceived she was offering them pedagogical guidance and practical advice that would help stimulate a “self-confident attitude” (van Dierendonck, 2011, pp. 1232-1233).

The school leader, in this case, was structurally empowering novice teachers by providing them with information and support. It does not seem, however, that she was psychologically empowering them because novice teachers appeared to play a passive role in the process. Instead of helping them “feel able to shape [their] work role and context” (Spreitzer, 1995, p. 1444), novice teachers appeared to play a more submissive role. While structural empowerment is important, it does not provide the deeper level of change that comes from psychological empowerment.

Another school leader shared a similar approach. He noted:

I do a ton of walk throughs, so I’m in classrooms pretty frequently and giving [novice teachers] feedback. I meet with my new faculty probably once a month just to check in. How are things going? What do you need? Is there anything I can get for you? Do you need professional development? If I see something in their classroom that I would like them to improve on, I might talk about that, but I also will give them suggestions to go observe in another classroom.

Like the prior school leader, this school leader illustrates how leaders strived to empower novice teachers through their hands-on approach. Through classroom observations, monthly one-on-one meetings, and constructive feedback, school leaders viewed themselves to be empowering novice teachers with classroom strategies and guidance. School leaders were thus structurally empowering novice teachers but they may not have been psychologically empowering them.

Although school leaders made sincere efforts to connect with and support novice teachers, psychological empowerment involves helping them increase their sense of self-efficacy and ability “to shape his or her work role and context” (Spreitzer, 1995, p. 1444).

As a result, data collected from the Columbia public school system suggest school leaders strived to structurally empower novice teachers but may not have psychologically empowered them. In either case, empowering novice teachers was an implicit aim of school leaders that was perceived to be associated with the job satisfaction of novice teachers.

In sum, school leaders perceived elements of servant leadership, although they may not have labeled their leadership approach as such, to be connected to the job satisfaction of novice teachers. Each element of servant leadership, including humility, valuing people, behaving ethically, and empowerment, was viewed by school leaders to be associated with novice teacher job satisfaction.

Novice Teachers and Servant Leadership

The second research question examined in what ways, if any, do novice teachers attribute job satisfaction to servant leadership. As was mentioned before and highlighted in the review of literature, the four main attributes of servant leadership are humility, valuing people, behaving ethically, and empowering followers. In what follows, I analyze key findings in each of these areas.

Humility. As previously stated, humility is an element of servant leadership defined as “the ability to put one’s own accomplishments and talents in a proper perspective” (van Dierendonck, 2011, p. 1233). While eleven school building and central office leaders perceived humility to be associated with job satisfaction, data collected from novice teachers suggests only some of them made the same association. For instance, only five out of eleven novice teachers

discussed how the humility of school leaders influenced their sense of job satisfaction in different and various ways. For example, one novice teacher shared how the humility of his principal and vice principal contributed to improving his school day. The principal and vice principal, he noted, have very important administrative jobs in the school; yet, they take the time each day to assist him with a special needs student during lunch. In the mind of this novice teacher, these school leaders did not have to take on this mundane job but were willing to do so because they were humble. He noted:

[The principal and vice principal] are technically supposed to have administrative responsibilities during lunch and recess but they help us out. They come here and they work with her so we can have lunch. They are taking time to step out of their administrative roles and really essentially work as a one-to-one with this girl... [It] has been huge.

While this example illustrates the humility of these school leaders, it also illustrates their willingness to place the well being of novice teachers ahead of their own. Thus, these school leaders touched at the center of servant leadership by selflessly placing the needs of followers first.

Another novice teacher shared how school leaders utilized humility not only to diminish their own self-importance but also to show that no one teacher or grade level is responsible for the academic success of students. He observed:

We had [very high] MCAS scores this year and the [principal] has been praising fifth grade teachers [but] she also brings it down to our level too. [She says], ‘These fifth graders aren’t coming in with just automatically knowing it. This is carried through first through fifth grade, and that’s why they are scoring so well...’

This excerpt underscores how humility was used to acknowledge the work of all faculty. Rather than take personal credit as the school leader or just give credit to fifth grade teachers for successful scores, this school leader strived to parcel out the credit to other faculty members, and therefore diminished the importance of himself and any one particular teacher. While four novice teachers attributed the humility of school leaders to their job satisfaction, the majority struggled to think about the connection between humility, school leadership, and job satisfaction. For these novice teachers, humility did not appear to play a role in their job satisfaction.

Valuing People. Valuing people is an aspect of servant leadership that can be defined as an emphasis on respect and regard for followers. Just as all of the school building and central office leaders perceived valuing people to be associated with job satisfaction, data suggest all of the novice teachers also associated being valued with job satisfaction. For instance, one novice teacher discussed how he felt like a valued member of the school community because school leaders took the time to know him by name. He noted:

I've had [members of the central office] in my room and I've always gotten positive feedback. What I like is [they] know my name. And it sounds weird but they know your name, and it's like 'Okay, they know me. They at least care to know my name.'

Another novice teacher highlighted the ways school leadership made him feel like a valued member of the school community. He observed:

I feel [school leaders] have gone out of their way to just personalize it with me, check in, or come down to my office like, 'What's going on? How is everything going?' . . . It means a lot to me if someone comes to my office, and says, 'Hey, can we eat lunch together today? I just want to hear how it's going for you.'

This excerpt underscores the significance of being valued by school leadership. In the view of this novice teacher, even little things like checking in or having lunch, made a difference in his experience at the school.

A different novice teacher offered similar evidence by contrasting his experience in the Columbia Public School system with his short experience teaching at another school in a different district. He noted:

The school that I was at before, I was afraid of my principal. She was very intimidating [but] it's not like that with my [new principal]. I feel like I can lean on her if I have a question, even if it's something little... Our principal says that all the time, 'You guys are amazing. I couldn't do what I do without you guys.' . . . I feel like everybody values what we're doing . . .

Like the other novice teacher, this teacher highlighted how school leadership plays an important role in making teachers feel valued.

Behaving Ethically. Behaving ethically is an element of servant leadership that involves acting with honesty and integrity towards novice teachers. Like valuing people, data suggest all novice teachers perceived behaving ethically to be related to novice teacher job satisfaction. When asked if she sees the values of honesty at work in the leadership of the school, one novice teacher noted, "Absolutely... [School leaders] are up front and honest. And I think that is very important... If I'm doing something and it's not right, I don't want someone to be like, 'Oh, that's okay.'"

When asked the same question, another novice teacher shared how the honesty of school leadership made his transition to the Columbia Public Schools easier and helped him avoid stumbling blocks. He observed:

I was in an inner city school, and [I wanted to bring practices] that I sort of did there [to my new school]. [School leadership was] very up front and said, ‘Well, this is something we can look at,’ but they would also be pretty honest with me about what I should expect, not in a bad way. ‘Well, this hasn’t been done here before so you might expect this type of backlash.’ They are very helpful but also realistic about it.

In the view of this novice teacher, the honesty of school leadership helped to improve his transition from the inner city to a suburban district. Rather than approach his new school with unrealistic suppositions, this novice teacher was able to start his new job with appropriate and more informed expectations.

Empowering Followers. Empowering followers is an aspect of servant leadership, which aims to “foster a proactive, self-confident attitude among followers [that] gives them a sense of personal power” (van Dierendonck, 2011, pp. 1232-1233). Structural empowerment establishes conditions to empower novice teachers by offering them “the information, support, and resources necessary to accomplish work” (Laschinger et al, 2004, p. 528), while psychological empowerment, increases self-efficacy leading toward “active, rather than a passive, orientation... in which an individual wishes and feels able to shape his or her work role and context” (Spreitzer, 1995, p. 1444). Just as valuing people and behaving ethically were found to be associated with novice teacher job satisfaction, data collected for this study also suggest nine of the eleven novice teachers perceived being empowered as related to it as well. As was pointed out, school leaders perceived themselves to be empowering novice teachers through a mentoring program, induction program, and observational feedback. While school leadership may not have directly used the term empowerment, they implicitly perceived these programs to be a way to increase the confidence and personal power of novice teachers by providing them with the skills,

knowledge, and strategies needed to be successful in the classroom. In this way, school leaders viewed themselves as empowering novice teachers.

The mentoring program was perceived by six of the eleven novice teachers to be a positive experience, which was connected to their job satisfaction. For example, one novice teacher noted, “I truly believe in the mentoring program. It was a great opportunity and [my mentor] was always available.” While another novice teacher observed, “My mentoring experience... [was] just fantastic. She taught me the ins and outs of what the school expects out of a teacher.” Nevertheless, two novice teachers felt the mentoring program could be better if their mentor was more familiar with their area of teaching. For example, one novice teacher pointed out, “The problem I had with [mentoring] is that I had a mostly English language learner class last year and this teacher was a mainstream teacher.” The views of these novice teachers illustrate how the mentoring program contributed to the structural empowerment of novice teachers. By providing them with a mentor who could offer them advice, information, and support, novice teachers were structurally empowered in the Columbia Public Schools.

The induction program was viewed by four novice teachers as an empowering experience associated with their job satisfaction. One novice teacher observed:

[The superintendent] had a class with us every other month with all the new teachers just going through the expectations, what problems we were having, how to address different things. Each month was a little bit different. It was really nice to kind of connect with all the new teachers throughout the whole district.

This novice teacher pointed out how the induction program empowered her by providing a forum to discuss and address problems she was facing as a novice teacher. In this case, it appears the induction program both structurally and psychologically empowered her as a novice teacher.

Structurally, she was empowered through advice, information, and support and psychologically she was empowered by engaging in a process of discussing problems. In this way she was able to take on an “active orientation” whereby she felt empowered to “shape [her] work role and context” (Spreitzer, 1995, p. 1444). Thus, increasing her sense of self-efficacy. After gaining advice and strategies from the superintendent and even other novice teachers, she may have felt a greater sense of confidence and power in her ability to teach. Yet, whereas four novice teachers felt the program was a positive experience, seven teachers felt neutral about the program or believed it did little to empower them. One novice teacher noted, “I personally did not find it beneficial. It was very off topic. There was (*sic*) too many grade levels in there to make it specific to each. It was just all over the place...”

While novice teachers were divided about the mentoring and induction programs, data from interviews suggest observational feedback was uniformly perceived to be a very influential method of empowering novice teachers. One novice teacher remarked:

My principal is super hands-on, super involved. She’s in and out of our classrooms everyday... [During] my first year here, [the principal and I] met on a weekly basis.

This novice teacher illustrates how school leaders attempt to empower novice teachers through classroom observation, feedback, and regular meetings. While it may appear school leaders are only striving to monitor the work of novice teachers, they may be in fact structurally empowering them with hands on guidance and strategies. However, it is not clear if this novice teacher was psychologically empowered. Even though the novice teacher and principal meet on a weekly basis, the novice teacher may not have been developing an increased sense of self-efficacy or ability to “shape his or her work role and context” (Spreitzer, 1995, 1444). In fact, just the opposite could have been happening if the school principal was attempting to micro-

manage the instructional strategies and classroom management approaches taken by the novice teacher.

A different novice teacher shared how the feedback from his principal helped improve his classroom management skills as a new teacher. He noted:

I've had behavior issues and... [the principal] sat in on my classroom and he's like, 'that's not what you need to do.' And now the behavior is kind of shifted and they are a lot better, so I think that with him giving me the rapport, back and forth talking, giving me ideas, giving me strategies, I think that was really beneficial.

As in the prior example, this excerpt highlights how school leaders aim to empower novice teachers through classroom observations, meetings, and conversations. It appears this novice teacher was both structurally and psychologically empowered by the school principal. Structurally, the school principal provided him with advice, information, and support that would help him perform his job. Psychologically, the school principal appears to have helped increase his sense of self-efficacy and encouraged him to take a more "active orientation" towards his job through "back and forth talking." He was, in other words, not a passive consumer of advice but rather an active participant in developing solutions to his classroom management issues and therefore may have developed a stronger sense of self-efficacy. Without the conversations with his principal, he may well have continued to struggle with classroom management. Instead, the "back and forth" engagement with his school principal provided him the strategies and power he needed to improve his practice and become a better teacher. It was, in his words, "really beneficial."

Another novice teacher shared a similar point of view. He believed the feedback and conversations with school leaders helped empower him during his initial years of teaching. He

noted, “From the times [the principal] has been in the classroom, there’s not a single person that has made me think about my learning process and my methodology more than her. Not a single person...” Continuing to refer to his school principal, he also went on to point out, “[The principal’s] work with me made all the difference in those first few months.” Like the prior teacher this account captures how school leaders can structurally and psychologically empower novice teachers through classroom observation, thus improving their sense of self-efficacy and encouraging active inquiry and subsequent positive change in their roles as classroom teachers (Spreitzer, 1995, p. 1444).

In sum, data suggest novice teachers attributed job satisfaction to certain elements of servant leadership, which have been identified in the literature. These particular elements of servant leadership, such as valuing people, behaving ethically, empowerment, and to a lesser extent, humility, were perceived as connected to job satisfaction.

Discussion

In the findings section, I described how school leaders perceived the influence of servant leadership on the job satisfaction of novice teachers and in what ways, if any, novice teachers attributed their job satisfaction to servant leadership. I found school leaders perceived all four elements of servant leadership, which are humility, valuing people, ethical behavior, and empowering others, to be associated with novice teacher job satisfaction.

In the same way, I also found novice teachers attributed their job satisfaction to three of the four elements of servant leadership with the exception of humility. While a small number of novice teachers associated humility with their job satisfaction, the majority did not, potentially because humility is not often associated with great leadership. Instead, as Sergiovanni (1993) dismayingly points out, successful leaders are often seen as “strong, mysterious, aloof, wise, and

all-powerful” (p. 23). The correspondence between these findings offers important implications for research and school leadership.

One main implication of this study is the fortification of prior research connecting servant leadership to job satisfaction. Like the research conducted by Anderson (2005), Cerit (2009), Miears (2004), Shaw and Newton (2014), and Van Tassell (2006), this study found elements of servant leadership to be positively associated with the job satisfaction of teachers. The results indicate that humility contributes to novice teacher job satisfaction because it helps novice teachers maintain a healthy perspective on their practice. Instead of being discouraged by mistakes, humility helps novice teachers successfully cope with the challenges of being new to the profession. When school leaders practice humility, it also helps novice teachers because it is valuable for them to see leaders admit to their own imperfections and serve others in a selfless manner. In this way, school leaders model a healthy approach to the teaching profession for novice teachers, who will most likely make many mistakes during their first years in the profession. Additionally, by having the humility to selflessly serve others, school leaders demonstrate to novice teachers the ideal of service that will hopefully be emulated by teachers in the classroom as they work with students. By modeling humility, school leaders also demonstrate to novice teachers the importance of setting aside one’s ego in order to focus on the work of educating students.

Feeling valued also plays an important role in job satisfaction. Novice teachers who feel valued by school leaders are likely to feel more confident and supported during those crucial early years in the teaching profession. They are thus more likely to try new practices, take greater risks, and be more open to feedback. When novice teachers perceive themselves as valued members of the school community, they become more invested in the success of the school and

potentially less likely to leave the teaching profession. While the findings highlight several elements of servant leadership perceived to be associated with the job satisfaction of novice teachers, feeling valued by school leadership may potentially be the most powerful. In this study, novice teachers were often quick to highlight examples of feeling valued when talking about their own job satisfaction. Being known by one's first name, eating lunch with an administrator or simply being told you are doing a great job, all had an important impact on novice teachers. This is not to say humility, ethical behavior or empowerment was not important but rather feeling valued was generally seen as being critical to novice teachers.

In a similar way, the honesty and integrity of school leaders helped novice teachers develop appropriate expectations and an authentic openness to feedback that can help them improve their practice. They are unlikely to become complacent because school leaders are candid about their work and strive to genuinely help them become better teachers. Moreover, the honesty and integrity of school leaders conveys a level of respect and value for novice teachers that communicates their importance to the school and models the professionalism expected of all educators.

Finally, empowerment also plays a key role in job satisfaction. The autonomy and self-confidence gained from empowerment helps novice teachers develop a stronger sense of self-efficacy and willingness to experiment with new practices. It ultimately allows novice teachers to become full-fledged confident professionals. The findings of this study also suggest, however, that it is important for school leaders to differentiate between structural and psychological empowerment. In this research study, many novice teachers appeared to be structurally empowered by school leaders. Nevertheless, as this study points out, structural empowerment does not necessarily lead to the kind of deeper psychological empowerment that gives novice

teachers the power to shape their “work role and context” (Spreitzer, 1995, p. 1444). Instead, many novice teachers appeared to be on the receiving end of information and support that most certainly helped them become better teachers but may not have necessarily allowed them to develop deeper levels of self-efficacy. In either case, while empowerment appeared to be associated with the job satisfaction of novice teachers, striving to help novice teachers develop psychological empowerment may potentially lead to even higher levels of job satisfaction and should be something school leaders consider when working with novice teachers.

Additionally, in light of the high rate of novice teacher turnover (Perda, 2013), findings from this study have implications for teacher retention. While research indicates many novice teachers leave the profession due to poor salaries or problems with student discipline, approximately one-third of novice teachers leave the profession due to dissatisfaction. From that pool of dissatisfied novice teachers, a full 26% attribute their decision to poor administrative support (Ingersoll & Smith, 2003). Therefore, the findings of this study suggest school leaders may find servant leadership to be a successful approach to reducing job dissatisfaction and novice teacher turnover. In fact, servant leadership would appear to be the antidote to poor administrative support.

Furthermore, when it comes to the issue of novice teacher turnover, the findings of this study reinforce the research of Jaramillo et al. (2009a), who found the “impact of servant leadership...is greater for less experienced salespeople” (p. 268). Although this study did not aim to compare the influence of servant leadership between veteran and novice teachers, similar to Jaramillo et al. it did find that less experienced people perceive servant leadership to influence their job satisfaction. It could be that veteran teachers feel the same level of influence from servant leadership but findings from this study can only confirm its influence on novice teachers.

Future research might aim to explore whether the influence of servant leadership diminishes as teachers gain experience and become veterans. For now, this research indicates servant leadership may be a particularly successful approach to working with and retaining less experienced novice teachers.

A third implication is that while this study substantiates prior research, it also builds on it by providing a qualitative view of servant leadership and job satisfaction. While Anderson (2005), Cerit (2009), Miears (2004), Shaw and Newton (2014), and Van Tassell (2006) examined the influence of servant leadership on the job satisfaction of teachers, their research was quantitative. Thus, their studies were able to find statistically significant correlations between servant leadership and job satisfaction but they were unable to describe what that influence looked like in practice. As Merriam (2009) points out, one of the strengths of qualitative research is its ability to offer a “holistic [and] lifelike” (p. 44) description of an event. The results of this study build on prior research because they provide a description of what servant leadership looks like in a school and how it influences novice teachers. Combined with the statistically significant correlations found in past quantitative research, the results of this study yield powerful insights into why servant leadership works. The combination of these two methodological approaches provides school leaders a more profound understanding of servant leadership and how it can impact the job satisfaction of novice teachers in their own schools.

In sum, the findings of this study substantiate prior research related to servant leadership and the job satisfaction of teachers. These findings also suggest servant leadership may well be a very successful approach to working with and supporting novice teachers during their initial years in the profession. While prior research has found a positive correlation between servant leadership and job satisfaction, the findings of this study build on prior research conducted

during the past 15 years by providing researchers and practitioners a material example of what servant leadership looks like in practice and how it influences the job satisfaction of novice teachers. For researchers and practitioners concerned with the retention of novice teachers and the creation of better public schools, servant leadership may prove to be a style of leadership well worth exploring.

CHAPTER 4⁴

Discussion and Recommendations

The purpose of this case study was to explore how leadership and school culture influence the job satisfaction of novice teachers. We grounded our research in the work of Herzberg et al. (1959) and Dinham and Scott (1997, 2000) who described the factors integral to job satisfaction. In line with Dinham and Scott, our research shows that school-based factors can and do influence the job satisfaction of teachers. Chapter 1 provides a detailed description of the conceptual framework of this study.

School leadership was the primary, school-based factor studied in this research. This is reflected both in the findings and recommendations outlined below. An additional factor that surfaced during the study was the way the work of central office also influences the job satisfaction of novice teachers, notably in the discussion of the induction program. These results support the primary findings of Dinham and Scott (1997, 2000), but also provide more elaboration as to the influence of specific school-based factors on novice teacher job satisfaction.

This chapter synthesizes the findings from six separate research studies that examined the influence of school culture and distributed, servant, social justice, instructional, and central office leadership on the job satisfaction of novice teachers. In this synthesis, we connect the research on job satisfaction to our research in this district. First, we briefly detail leadership changes and contextual factors that may have influenced the findings. Next, we describe findings related to the impact of interpersonal relations between school leaders and novice teachers that influence novice teacher job satisfaction. Then, we describe findings related to the areas where novice teachers and school leaders possess divergent perceptions on factors influential to the job

⁴ This chapter was jointly written by the authors listed and reflects the team approach of this project: Kori Becht, Elizabeth Chamberland, Bridget Gough, Matthew Joseph, Mark McManmon, and Michael Morris

satisfaction of novice teachers. Finally, the chapter provides recommendations for areas of improvement that may influence the job satisfaction of novice teachers.

District Context

The Columbia School District has recently undergone a significant transition in both school and district leadership. A majority of central office and building level leaders are either new to the district or new to their leadership role. Research indicates that organizational change often takes three to five years to occur, especially with a new administrative team and the implementation of associated initiatives (Russell, 2003; Timperley, Wilson, Barrar, & Fung, 2007). While adjusting to transitions in leadership the district is also working to meet the needs of a diverse population of students. Additionally, like many districts across the state, the Columbia School District is responding to accountability measures related to state-mandated standardized assessment outcomes. Student performance on these assessments has resulted in a Level 3 rating of the district. Therefore, the district is under increased pressure to improve student performance. Finally, it is important to note that data gathered during this research reflect both the presence of a collaborative school culture, as well as opportunities for the district to further develop initiatives that may support the job satisfaction of novice teachers.

Interpersonal Relationships

One primary theme identified across the findings of our research is the importance of positive interpersonal relationships. These relationships are often associated with a pattern of supportive and caring peer relationships in an educational setting (Wubbels & Levy, 1993) such as sharing expectations for teachers' success, listening to colleagues willingly, administrators reaching out to know teachers on an individual basis to build professional relationships and ensure ongoing support, and demonstrating concern for colleagues' personal issues. Our data

show that interpersonal relationships played an important role in the job satisfaction of novice teachers. The data illustrate the significant role school leaders and their relationships with novice teachers play in contributing to job satisfaction. Several attributes appear to contribute to positive interpersonal relationships. They include such practices as open communication, school culture, supervision and feedback, leadership visibility and accessibility, selfless leadership, valuing novice teachers, and collegial collaboration. School leaders and novice teachers found these interpersonal factors influenced novice teacher job satisfaction. Novice teachers identified interpersonal relationships with building leaders as a critical influence on their job satisfaction.

Communication

A study conducted by Marzano, Waters, and McNulty (2005) found that principals who establish strong lines of two-way communication throughout the school community support teachers more successfully. Our study found a connection between the communication of teachers and administration and the job satisfaction of novice teachers. One teacher said “my [principal and vice principal] are communicating one hundred percent of the time by speaking and listening to us.” An additional study identified that effective school principals allow teachers to play a role in decision-making and building productive relationships with colleagues (Leithwood & Riehl, 2005). On the whole, principals in the Columbia School District pay attention to the culture of the school and focus on creating a collaborative work environment. The school sites in which participants were interviewed fostered high levels of communication that seemed to enhance job satisfaction.

School Culture

Novice teachers found that positive collaborative relationships enhanced their communication with colleagues and increased job satisfaction, thus contributing to a positive

school culture. Principals interviewed spoke very proudly about ensuring that novice teachers had essential human and material supports, to begin their careers at the school successfully. One principal was very clear that her first supportive step is to ensure new teachers could communicate with colleagues and administrations and “felt a part of the school.” Another principal noted the importance of creating a culture with high levels of communication because, “It is very hard for a new teacher to ask for help because they think you’re going to look down on them or look that they are less because of it.”

Supervision and Feedback

Another major finding across our studies was the value both school leaders and novice teachers placed on supervision and feedback. School leaders and novice teachers in the Columbia School District perceived supervision and feedback to be connected to the job satisfaction of novice teachers. In line with the findings of Herzberg et al. (1959), Sergiovanni (1967), and Dinham and Scott (1997, 2000), supervision and feedback may be connected to intrinsic motivators such as personal achievement and growth, which are important elements of job satisfaction. One novice teacher observed, “From the times [the principal] has been in the classroom, there’s not a single person that has made me think about my learning process and my methodology more than her. Not a single person . . .” He went on to point out, “[The principal’s] work with me made all the difference in those first few months.”

Likewise, school leaders also perceived the supervision and feedback process to be positively connected to the job satisfaction of novice teachers. One school leader noted:

I do a ton of walk throughs, so I’m in classrooms pretty frequently and giving [novice teachers] feedback. I meet with my new faculty probably once a month just to check in. How are things going? What do you need? Is there anything I can get for you? If I see

something in their classroom that I would like them to improve on, I might talk about that, but I also will give them suggestions to go observe in another classroom.

Thus, school leaders and novice teachers in the Columbia School District perceive supervision and feedback to be positively associated with novice teacher job satisfaction.

Leadership Visibility and Accessibility

Another main finding connected to interpersonal relationships was the importance of school leadership visibility and accessibility. School leaders and novice teachers associated the visibility and accessibility of school leadership with the job satisfaction of novice teachers. All novice teachers interviewed enjoyed seeing the principal around the school, walking through classrooms, and socializing in the lobby. Visibility and accessibility may breed comfort and familiarity, and in the process potentially increase the satisfaction of novice teachers. One teacher affirmed that “I like knowing that I will see my principal at some point during the day either in the hall, lunchroom, or in my classroom.” Being visible and accessible may reduce divisions between administrators and teachers and build a more collaborative approach.

Our study found that maintaining an open office door policy, establishing regular meeting times with each novice teacher or simply visiting a teacher’s classroom during the course of the school day to check in, were seen as behaviors associated with visibility, accessibility, and novice teacher job satisfaction. One elementary teacher noted, “[The principal] frequently stops into our grade level meeting and casually asks how it is going.” This is also an opportunity for novice teachers to connect with the principal in order to ask questions that may be important to the novice teachers. One school leader shared his approach to making himself and other members of the administration available to support teachers: “it is important that at least one

administrator is available to talk throughout the day” to make school leadership accessible to teachers at all times and address questions or concerns in a timely way.

While school leaders felt visibility and accessibility were important, our research found novice teachers also found the visibility and accessibility of school leadership to be important as well. Many novice teachers pointed out the positive influence accessibility to school leadership had on their experience as a novice teacher. Whether it entailed a spur of the moment decision to stop in the hallway to spend time with a novice teacher or a more systematic practice of checking in with novice teachers each day, the findings of our study suggest visibility and accessibility positively influences the job satisfaction of novice teachers.

Selfless Leadership

A fourth major finding related to interpersonal relationships was the significance of selfless leadership. School leaders and novice teachers perceived the selfless behavior of school leaders to be associated with the job satisfaction of novice teachers. This finding is consistent with work of Dinham and Scott (1997, 2000) that highlights the importance of school-based factors in increasing the job satisfaction of teachers. In particular, both novice teachers and school leaders associated the willingness of school leaders to place the good of followers ahead of their own needs, whether it be helping to clean up in the cafeteria, shifting money in the budget, or serving as a substitute paraprofessional teacher, to be connected to novice teacher job satisfaction. As one school leader observed, “There’s not a hierarchy or anything [at the school]. There’s no job that I don’t do, that I wouldn’t do. If somebody got sick, I’ll clean it up. I mean that’s the reality of the job.” He goes on further to note, “If I was a teacher, I would want to know that anything I was asked to do, [school leaders] would be willing to do . . .”

A different school leader also discussed the importance of selfless leadership as it applied to the school district budget. She pointed out:

I'll never ask for something if I know that somebody else needs something ahead of me.

If someone says, 'I really want to participate in this opportunity,' we will shift money around appropriately to make sure that person can take advantage of it.

Novice teachers also perceived the influence of selfless leadership on job satisfaction. For example, one novice teacher observed how school leaders improved his school day by helping him at lunchtime with students with special needs. From his perspective, the selflessness of school leadership positively influenced his experience as a teacher. He noted:

[The principal and vice principal] are technically supposed to have administrative responsibilities during lunch and recess but they help us out. They come here and they work with her so we can have lunch. They are taking time to step out of their administrative roles and really essentially work as a one-to-one with this girl . . . [It] has been huge.

Thus, our findings suggest that school leaders and novice teachers perceive the willingness of school leaders to place the needs of others first and accept tasks that might normally be considered beneath their role to positively influence the job satisfaction of novice teachers.

Valuing Novice Teachers

A final finding noted across our studies was the importance of valuing novice teachers, another factor of servant leadership. School leaders and novice teachers perceived being valued as important to the job satisfaction of novice teachers. This finding is not only consistent with the research of Dinham and Scott (1997, 2000), who found that school-based factors such as school

leadership and school climate play an important role in the job satisfaction of novice teachers, but it is also consistent with the research supporting servant leadership. Building on the work of the two-factor theory of job satisfaction (Herzberg et al., 1959), Dinham and Scott (1997, 2000) found that teachers' job satisfaction is not solely based on intrinsic motivators and hygiene factors. Instead, they found school-based factors such as "school leadership, climate and decision making, school reputation, and school infrastructure" (2000, p. 16) to be a third set of factors that can contribute to both job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. The findings of our research support the conclusions of Dinham and Scott and highlight the importance of school leadership in making novice teachers feel valued in their schools. While other intrinsic motivators or hygiene factors may play a role in the job satisfaction of novice teachers, our findings suggest feeling valued by school leadership to be an important contributing factor to novice teacher job satisfaction.

School leaders made novice teachers feel valued by making a deliberate effort to get to know them. Novice teachers consistently discussed the significance of being recognized. Surprisingly, novice teachers connected being known by their first names to their job satisfaction. For example, one novice teacher noted:

I've had [members of the central office] in my room and I've always gotten positive feedback. What I like is [they] know my name. And it sounds weird but they know your name, and it's like "Okay, they know me. They at least care to know my name."

This account highlights how a simple action like knowing a teacher's name can have a positive influence on the experience of a novice teacher. While it may appear to be a small gesture, it was perceived to be an important action by this novice teacher. These data also indicate that at least some central office administrators have relationships with some novice teachers.

A different novice teacher highlighted a similar sentiment with regard to the importance of feeling valued by school leadership. He observed:

I feel [school leaders] have gone out of their way to just personalize it with me, check in, or come down to my office like, ‘What’s going on? How is everything going?’ . . . It means a lot to me if someone comes to my office and says, ‘Hey, can we eat lunch together today? I just want to hear how it’s going for you.’

In the view of this novice teacher, school leadership was able to enhance his experience at the school by taking the time to make him feel valued. Like the previous novice teacher, this novice teacher perceived this minor gesture of school leadership to play an important role in making him feel like a valued member of the school community. These novice teachers’ accounts highlight how school leadership can influence the job satisfaction of novice teachers by helping them feel valued. Whether it is knowing a teacher’s name or setting aside time to check in, novice teachers perceived being valued to be positively associated with job satisfaction.

Collegial Collaboration

In addition to the positive influence of formal leaders, novice teachers identified collegial collaborations that included strategy-specific learning and sharing, increased their knowledge about students and enhanced their professional growth. Frequent and consistent collegial collaboration within the schools of the Columbia School District was identified as an important factor in novice teacher job satisfaction. This collaboration may be borne out of the challenges that come with being a novice teacher; as one stated, “You can’t just do everything on your own.” Hence, this concept stresses the importance of having multiple avenues of collegial collaboration, with both novice and veteran teachers, in order to provide access to information, knowledge and expertise and build a positive school culture. Building leaders noted they work to

ensure time for collegial collaboration by adjusting schedules, changing meeting times if necessary, and/or coordinating common daily responsibilities to allow for maximum colleague collaboration. In addition, the mentor program provided positive collegial relationships among staff. Research by Rodriguez (2007) identified the components of an effective mentoring program. Several of these components were reflected in the Columbia Public School District where mentors took time to answer questions, consistently visited the mentees' classrooms, and also provided sustained support. As one novice teacher noted,

She . . . would come in and observe me [in my first year]. I would go into her room and observe her. That first year, we were meeting on a daily basis writing curriculum, doing our plans together, really trying to get on the same page. That was very, very helpful.

Novice teachers indicated a high level of support through the mentor program, which ultimately led to increased job satisfaction.

Divergent Perceptions

As our study indicates, the extent to which school leaders provide useful supervision and feedback, are visible and accessible, exercise selfless leadership, and value people can influence the job satisfaction of novice teachers. Although these factors were clearly evident in the district, there were several discrepancies between the perceptions of leaders and novice teachers on other school-based factors that influence the job satisfaction of novice teachers. These discrepant school-based factors included the induction program, teaching grounded in social justice, educator evaluation and teacher leadership opportunities. In each of these areas, the perceptions of school and district leadership were inconsistent with that of novice teachers.

Induction

Leaders and novice teachers held differing views of the district's induction program. All district leaders reflected positively about the program and stated that it was the primary support provided to novice teachers. One central office administrator indicated that, "The greatest support that we offer is the new teacher induction program." District leaders also noted the induction program empowered novice teachers. However, the majority of novice teachers either felt neutral about the induction program or stated that the program did little to empower them. Seven out of eleven novice teachers indicated there was a lack of application to classroom practice. Novice teachers also felt this training had a one-size-fits-all focus and lacked differentiation related to the diverse experiences and needs of novice teachers and their classrooms. For example, one novice teacher noted, "I personally did not find it beneficial. It was very off topic. There were too many grade levels in there to make it specific to each. It was just all over the place." As a result, the current induction program, as described by novice teachers, may not have a positive influence on their job satisfaction.

Social Justice

The research indicated a discrepancy in the perceptions between school leaders and novice teachers with regard to professional development focused on social justice. While the majority of leaders stated they provided opportunities for novice teachers to reflect on their understanding and knowledge of diverse populations, less than half of novice teachers indicated that they actually engaged in critical self-reflection about diversity and issues of social justice. Similarly, although leaders stated they provided professional development to novice teachers designed to meet the needs of diverse learners, novice teachers did not perceive receiving this type of support. As a result, many novice teachers voiced a need for culturally relevant pedagogy

in order to practice culturally responsive teaching. One teacher commented, “I’m not getting as much help as I could . . . I look at it as, how am I going to figure this out? I like the diversity, but sometimes I feel like I need a bit more support in some areas.” Another teacher recognized that leaders offered professional development to assist with teaching ELLs and provided feedback on student learning needs. Although she received this support, this novice teacher conveyed her first experience working in a diverse classroom:

I came in and had no idea what to expect. I didn’t know what cultures I had . . . what languages I had. You kind of take the bull by the horn and you have to learn. This was my first experience being completely thrown into kids who don’t speak English, the different cultures, the different traditions. I’m learning.

While leaders acknowledged providing supports for novice teachers, they also recognized the importance of additional training and continued dialogue about social justice. Without the appropriate training, novice teachers may not feel equipped to meet the needs of their students, which may impact their job satisfaction (Dinham & Scott, 1997, 2000). It is also critical that novice teachers identify their own biases and beliefs about diversity.

Educator Evaluation

Despite the positive influence of supervision on novice educators, school leaders and novice teachers did not have consistent perceptions of the evaluation process. In general, evaluation was typically viewed as a summative feedback process designed to rate the performance of a teacher. Recent state and district mandates have precipitated the implementation of evaluation systems in all school districts comprised of a cycle that includes self reflection, goal setting, analysis of student progress and ongoing observations by building leaders. School leaders in the Columbia School District described the self-reflection and

goal-setting process as critical to the development and job satisfaction of novice teachers. The leaders described this process as “empowering” for the novice teachers and thus, as described by Blase (2001), teachers who feel empowered are more likely to be satisfied with their job.

In contrast, none of the eleven novice teachers interviewed connected the evaluation process to job satisfaction. Novice teachers did not provide any connections between goal setting and self-reflection to job satisfaction. Novice teachers described evaluation as “written feedback and lacking a conversation” or as an opportunity for a “gotcha moment” where the building leader provides negative feedback. This may indicate that novice teachers perceive written feedback as negative because it can be used to rate their performance. Noticeably absent from the interview data with novice teachers is any reference to receiving guidance on the evaluation process. As a result, the evaluation process does not seem to have a positive influence on the job satisfaction of novice teachers. This is problematic, as the evaluation process will determine the retention or dismissal of the novice teacher.

Teacher Leadership Opportunities

This research discovered inconsistent availability of leadership opportunities for novice teachers. While district administrators and supporting district documents illustrated a commitment to teacher leadership opportunities, this research found disparities between how this was enacted in the schools. Some building leaders acted with intentionality in communicating teacher leadership opportunities to novice teachers to encourage their participation. Several leaders initiated conversations with novice teachers, encouraging them to take on leadership roles. Teachers in these schools stated that this experience had a positive impact on their job satisfaction. Leaders also recognized that a leadership role could overburden a novice teacher. Therefore, these opportunities were individualized to those novice teachers who expressed

interest. Novice teachers provided interview data demonstrating the value they placed on leadership opportunities. One novice teacher noted the satisfaction she gained serving as a member of her school's Outreach Committee designed to support students at risk in her school. She pointed out:

I think it makes [my job] even more worthwhile because a lot of the [students] are from refugee families who [are] learning what the culture is like here . . . They want what is best for their kids . . . They just [need] a little more support.

However, other school leaders appeared more passive in their approach toward novice teachers in leadership roles. In these schools, leaders did not report providing direct encouragement to teachers. As a result, all teachers in the district did not receive the same opportunities to participate in teacher leadership roles. This disparity may have impacted their job satisfaction based on the positive response by novice teachers to participation in leadership roles, even if the commitment was relatively minor. Having cited the areas in which the perception of leaders was inconsistent with that of novice teachers, the chapter now turns to a discussion of recommendations that will help strengthen practices supporting novice teachers in the district.

Recommendations

Research states that a learning organization is a place where all the members of the organization, as individual persons, are continually learning, and the organization itself is highly adaptable. The organization is able to routinely modify its shared knowledge and practices in accord with experience and need. Honig (2008) posits that, when functioning as a learning organization, central office administration becomes proficient in mining for evidence to inform teaching practices, discriminates to identify the priorities that will impact teaching and learning,

and serves as a “boundary spanner” to link new priorities to new action through collaboration and relationship building. This is consistent with findings from Dinham and Scott (1997, 2000) where they note the important influence of leadership, communication, and decision-making on the job satisfaction of teachers. Based on our findings, it would be beneficial for this district to continue to develop itself as a learning organization to support the job satisfaction of novice teachers and potentially create a more fruitful learning environment for all staff members.

In line with Honig’s research (2008) where the district serves as a “boundary spanner,” there is evidence that this district would benefit from enhancing the link between district policy and practice regarding teacher evaluation. For instance, the negotiated teacher contract provides a detailed description of the educator evaluation process. However, discrepancies related to the implementation and understanding of the teacher evaluation process exist between novice teachers and building leaders. District and school leaders should provide clear direction and guidance on the application of policies such as educator evaluation to school-based practice. Additionally, a method for monitoring the implementation of such initiatives would allow leadership to be responsive to questions and concerns related to the initiative. Doing so may enhance the consistency and coherence of practices within and between each school in the district.

Induction

One recommendation suggests promising improvements to the induction program. Most districts struggle to create and implement induction programs that are tailored to novice teachers each year. This is due in part to the ever-changing professional needs and roles of the novice teachers who are hired. However, some of these suggestions may serve to guide the future thinking of the district as they develop their induction programming. First, the induction program

for teachers should be designed to meet the needs for each teacher learner. Dinham and Scott (1997, 2000) note that job satisfaction can be negatively impacted when teachers feel overwhelmed or underprepared in their role. This means that the instruction provided during the initial induction session should include only what they need to start the year. The information presented during this initial session may include overall information needed by all staff members and should be carefully selected to ensure that teachers are not overwhelmed with new learning. Subsequent induction sessions should be constructed in a similar manner ensuring that the content presented is tailored to the needs of the novice teachers. Many induction programs try to deliver too much information at once (Sweeny, 2008). Pacing, volume, and quality of content must be carefully considered.

The induction program should be designed to reflect the same approach to teaching that is applied in the teaching of diverse learners in the classroom. It should meet the needs of novice teachers from a variety of educational levels, types of experiences and content knowledge (Sweeny, 2008). Whole group activities should be utilized for concepts clearly connected to all members of the group. These activities should be followed by small group work that is tailored to the needs of the learner. For instance, induction should address culturally responsive teaching tailored to the diverse needs of each school. Novice teachers should continually be surveyed for needs that extend beyond the planned induction activities as well to evaluate the induction program itself. Inclusion of principals in the planning and implementation of the induction program would ensure the integration of induction concepts at the school level. Finally, consideration should be given to the creation of an induction program that extends beyond the common practice of one year. Ingersoll and Strong (2011) note that induction programs that are longer than one year and provide a greater depth of instruction can positively impact the

experience of the novice teacher. In this way, the district will demonstrate that they are responsive to the needs of novice teachers while also taking a proactive stance toward professional development needs.

Professional Development

The district has a diverse student population. Research indicates that whether or not novice teachers feel they can meet student needs plays a major role in job satisfaction and their attrition rate (Johnson & Birkeland, 2003). The research of Dinham and Scott (1997, 2000) further supports that teachers who feel prepared and able to meet the needs of their students are more satisfied with their job. The data gathered from this district reflects similar results. Professional development needs were identified both for novice teachers and for the administrators who support development. The following paragraphs include the recommendations related to professional development in this district.

District-wide planning. In order for a learning organization to be effective, a cohesive communication strategy is essential (Honig, 2008; Dinham & Scott, 1997, 2000). It is important for the communication strategy to be structured in a way that allows central office, building leaders and novice teachers to consistently collaborate about supervision, evaluation, leadership opportunities, and meeting the needs of diverse populations. The district should determine an effective method for the dissemination of information to ensure consistency and the cohesive implementation of new initiatives within the district. The district might consider the development of a teacher and building leader survey to determine professional development needs. Looking forward, central office, along with the district-wide professional development team, could create a plan to be proactive in seeking out promising professional development activities to further enhance the instructional skills of novice teachers. Finally, central office and the professional

development team, including novice teachers, could establish processes for sustainability of professional development initiatives in response to future staffing changes in schools and in central office. Efforts related to our recommendations for professional development are already underway in the district. The Superintendent's District Improvement Plan that was approved by the School Committee at the time of this research emphasizes professional development initiatives. The first improvement plan objective notes the need for a district-wide professional development team. The second objective is the development of a district-wide professional development plan. Therefore, while it is evident that the district has already identified some of the recommendations noted in this research, our findings may also serve as a tool to further develop the professional development agenda already in progress.

Self-Reflection. Professional development should guide teachers and administrators through the self-reflection process to examine personal practices and beliefs that may impact the learning opportunities they present to students. The first step in developing culturally responsive teaching is to help all teachers and leaders develop ideological clarity. The professional development should be designed to help teachers explore their own ideas and attitudes about diversity, identify the learning needs of a diverse population and be coupled with specific tools and strategies targeted to those needs. As with the induction program, building leaders and teachers should be regularly surveyed for professional development needs beyond what was planned. The district should also be prepared to provide support to teachers of students who arrive after the start of the school year who present with needs or challenges outside of those for which training had been provided.

Additionally, there is evidence from the district that there are pockets of highly effective practice related to students with diverse learning needs. This is most evident in those schools

with highly diverse student populations. In those schools, novice teachers stated that their ability to meet the needs of their students contributed to their job satisfaction. The district should utilize the expertise of teachers and principals from these schools to share best practices across the district. Since there is district-based expertise, opportunities for peer observation could be very powerful.

Evaluation. State, local and district policy has elevated the emphasis placed on educator evaluation. This emphasis requires that building leaders and novice teachers become intimately aware of the usefulness of the evaluation process to develop and refine novice teachers' skills and understandings. This is grounded in the collaborative, trusting, coaching relationships that are present in the district between building leaders and novice teachers discussed earlier. The research of Dinham and Scott (1997, 2000) clearly supports that these characteristics each contribute to the job satisfaction of teachers. These characteristics are the foundation upon which a powerful evaluation process can be built. Targeted, timely and appropriately paced professional development should be provided for new teachers and building administrators on the district objectives and processes around educator evaluation. This professional development should be timed throughout the school year so that novice teachers are not overwhelmed by the many requirements of the process. A brief reference document could be created from the 46-page contract addendum to make the process easily understood by novice teachers.

Principals and teachers should receive training that connects classroom supervision and feedback to the evaluation process. Engaging in this work will connect the already strong supervision and feedback cycle to the overall evaluation process given that there are clear professional communities of inquiry and practice present in the district. The connection between supervision and evaluation is most easily accomplished when emphasis is placed on student

outcomes in contrast to teaching practices. The teachers should be included in the conversation about student outcomes and subsequent plans to improve student performance. Platt and Tripp (2014) found that when the teacher is included in the decision making process related to the outcomes of students and the accompanying teaching practices, the evaluation process is enhanced. Conley et al. (2006) further the importance of including novice teachers in the decision-making process identifying this as a contributing factor to teacher autonomy, which has been shown to influence job satisfaction and higher levels of reflective judgment. As a result, a process of constant improvement embedded in a climate of trust, feedback and self-reflection will become common practice and teacher job satisfaction will be enhanced.

Teacher Leadership

There is a significant body of research that shows distributed leadership opportunities can positively influence the job satisfaction of novice teachers (Angelle, 2006; Hulpia et al. 2009). Novice teachers are often overwhelmed by the preparation time required during the first years of teaching. It is helpful to find leadership opportunities that require a limited time commitment for novice teachers and connect them to other teachers, such as serving on committees that inform school policy, like one on parent outreach. The principal must play an active role in the cultivation of teacher leaders. Given a leadership role, novice teachers should be guided throughout the leadership process to avoid ineffectiveness. Novice teachers should be viewed as an untapped resource of enthusiasm, engagement and knowledge that can be harnessed to influence the culture and abilities of the school. However, the work of teacher leaders must be connected to school and district goals. If the leader ensures a connection to school and district goals while providing guidance and supervision of the leadership process, there is great potential

in the leadership capabilities of novice teachers. As a result, the job satisfaction of novice teachers may be enhanced.

Implications for Future Practice

Finally, while our research focused on the job satisfaction of novice teachers, there may be implications beyond this particular population of teachers. Each of the areas discussed above may have implications for veteran staff as well. Our research raises questions for district consideration:

- Would veteran teachers benefit from additional professional development on social justice?
- Would veteran teachers benefit from additional professional development on the process and objective of the process of evaluation?
- Would veteran teachers benefit from the inclusion of novice teachers in building-based leadership opportunities?

District consideration to each of these questions could potentially serve to improve the job satisfaction of all staff members.

Limitations

Although there are many strengths of case study research, there are also weaknesses. One limit to a case study is that it relies on the “researcher [as] the primary instrument of data collection and analysis” (Merriam, 2009, p. 52). Therefore, if a researcher felt unsupported during his first years as a novice teacher then he/she may have a bias in favor of the novice teachers participating in the study. On the other hand, a researcher with a background in administration may have a bias in favor of other administrators being interviewed in the study.

The research team through group conversations about data and team coding addressed this potential bias.

A second limitation is the reliability of the data collected from novice teachers. Given they have yet to complete the probationary period of employment, novice teachers may not share their complete or honest opinions about their job satisfaction. If some participants are unsatisfied with their jobs, they may be reluctant to attribute their dissatisfaction to school and district leadership for fear of repercussions, which might include the possibility of losing employment.

The third limitation is the use of self-reported data. School leaders and novice teachers shared with the research team their perceptions. Therefore, novice teachers' lack of experience and high stress levels may influence how they perceive the school and district. They may lack an understanding of the history and scope of school and district work. They are also novice teachers, so perhaps they are concerned with their job security and therefore tend to paint a rosier picture. The school leaders may perceive an incentive in positively reporting their work and the work in their school.

While the study provided a cross section of leaders and novice teachers from different schools and central office settings, one school in the district, which contained a large number of low-income students and had a low accountability rating from the state, did not participate in the study. This may have been due to the leader's availability or the possibility that there were not any novice teachers at this particular school. Nevertheless, comparing interview responses from this school with the data from other schools with greater student diversity may have increased the study's generalizability.

The time frame of this study was another limitation. Several leaders were new to the district and although they may have prioritized several aspects of school and district leadership,

effective change usually occurs within three to five years. The sample of novice teachers for this study ranged in years taught in the district and educational background. Although we did not report on teacher preparation programs, a few novice teachers self reported these data. One novice teacher was in the first year in the district with previous experience while all other novice teachers were in the second or third year in the district with a total ranging from two to six years in the profession. As a result, their responses may not have reflected current practice provided to novice teachers within the school district, especially given the leadership transitions in the previous few years at both the school and district level. Revisiting novice teachers and leaders near the end of the school year and then again at the end of a three-year period would have increased the validity and reliability of this study.

The final limitation of this study is the generalizability of the findings. Since case study research focuses on a single unit of analysis, which in this case is one suburban Massachusetts school district, the results of the study may be limited to other school systems in Massachusetts or the United States with similar characteristics and may not be applicable to school districts with different demographics, achievement levels, and geographic contexts. Therefore, this may limit the generalizability of the study, but does not mean a research study focused on one district cannot provide insight or a better understanding of how leadership influences the job satisfaction of novice teachers. In fact, Merriam (2009) points out that “It is the reader, not the researcher, who determines what can apply to his or her context” (p. 51). Related to sample size, however, one has to be careful about extrapolating the findings to other novice teachers and school leaders. In a different school or district, we could find school leaders and novice teachers had different experiences. We also cannot make causal connections as there may be other explanations or factors involved. Future research could further illuminate the school-based factors that influence

the job satisfaction of novice teachers. In conclusion, although this research has some limitations, this research accomplished its goal.

Conclusion

There is broad consensus that having talented and skilled teachers in our nation's classrooms are of critical importance to the educational attainment of students (Rivkin, Hanushek, & Kain, 2005; Wright, Horn, & Sanders, 1997). Retaining teachers in schools has long been a priority because experienced teachers tend to contribute to student achievement at a higher level than their novice counterparts (Kane, Rockoff, & Staiger, 2008). Teacher quality and retention issues are not equally distributed across schools; as Johnson (2004) writes, "If schools fail to attract and retain a strong, committed cohort of new teachers in the coming years, students will be severely penalized, and those in low income communities will be likely to pay the greatest price" (p. 329).

Furthermore, the importance of novice teacher retention has grown increasingly more important in recent years as the pool of applicants entering teacher preparation programs and teachers entering the job market have diminished (Sawchuk, 2014; Westervelt, 2015). As Mary Vixie Sandy, the executive director of the California Commission on Teaching Credentials, states, "We are going to see it play out in this year and in the coming year with an increase in demand, and a not very deep pool of teachers to fulfill that demand" (Sawchuk, 2014, p. 1). Furthermore, this trend of a reduction in the number of applications received by teacher preparation programs does not appear to be a fad; Bill McDiarmid, the dean of the University of North Carolina School of Education, recently stated that, "The erosion is steady. That's a steady downward line on a graph. And there's no sign that it's being turned around" (Westervelt, 2015,

p. 1). Given these trends, retaining and developing novice teachers should be a high priority for schools and districts to ensure there are enough high quality teachers to fill their classrooms.

Job satisfaction is a primary factor in the retention of novice teachers (Boyd et al., 2011; Ladd, 2011). Our research confirms the findings of Dinham and Scott (1998): leadership can influence the job satisfaction of novice teachers. The leaders and novice teachers in the Columbia Public School District value interpersonal relationships, and as a result, this has contributed to the job satisfaction of novice teachers. Looking forward, the district could continue to enhance the experience of novice teachers. An ongoing commitment by school and district leadership to enhance professional development in the areas of induction, self reflection, evaluation, and teacher leadership, will allow school and district leadership to further elevate the job satisfaction of novice teachers. Furthermore, the many strengths already present within the district coupled with a commitment to ongoing growth in these areas, could serve to benefit the practice and job satisfaction of all teachers.

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Appendix A

Study Timeline

| Start Date | End Date | Research Task |
|----------------|--------------|--|
| March 2015 | May 2015 | Begin researching districts that fit the profile of participants needed to complete a robust study of novice teachers. Sample size must have 20 novice teachers, 10 teacher mentors, 10 building based administrators, and a central office cabinet. |
| May 2015 | May 2015 | Defend group research study proposal. |
| May 2015 | June 2015 | Select district and contact district leadership to make initial introductions and presentation of proposed study. |
| June 2015 | August 2015 | Complete initial study of research group's individual district profile. |
| August 2015 | October 2015 | Begin data analysis process and identification of themes, document inferences, and findings. |
| September 2015 | | Schedule perspective interviews with available personnel. Complete initial interviews and collect initial data and artifacts. |
| November 2015 | January 2016 | Data Analysis |
| December 2015 | January 2016 | Continue with data analysis and identification of themes, document inferences and findings to write up findings. |
| March 2016 | | Defend Dissertation |
| April 1, 2016 | | Submit Dissertation in Practice |

Appendix B

Novice Teacher Interview

Introduction

- Greet and introduce yourself and your role and explain to the teacher the purpose of the study - to gather data and to explore how leadership influences the job satisfaction of novice teachers
- Go over the disclosure statement and highlight the informed consent and confidentiality. Remind the participant that they are not required to participate in the interview. They may choose not to answer a certain question or all questions. They may stop the interview at any time
- State that the interview will begin with an inquiry into their educational history

Leadership

1. What has the principal directly or indirectly done to impact your initial years in the profession?
2. How does your principal influence you as a novice teacher?

Job Satisfaction

3. Describe the factors of your school that influence your job satisfaction.
4. Describe the aspects of your teaching position you find to be rewarding and frustrating.

School Culture

5. How do you differentiate between your role in a school's culture and that of the administration? Detail each role.
6. Do you feel you get support/assistance in your teaching when you have a problem? If so, from who and what does that support/assistance look like?

7. Are there structures within the school day that help foster collaboration between you and your colleagues? Explain your answer.

Distributed Leadership

8. In what ways do teachers have opportunities to take on leadership roles in the school?
How does seeing other teachers in leadership roles influence your experience?
9. Have you been involved in any teacher leadership activities? How has that affected your experience at the school?

Servant Leadership

10. Do school and district leaders empower novice teachers? Can you offer some specific examples?
11. Do you feel valued by school and district leadership? Can you provide some specific examples?
12. How does school leadership respond to feedback from teachers? Is leadership open to different views? Can you provide some specific examples?

Central Office

13. How does central office support you as a novice teacher? Please identify the direct or indirect support provided by central office.
14. Describe your mentoring and induction experience?
15. In what ways does policy affect you as a novice educator?

Social Justice Leadership

16. Describe your experiences teaching a diverse population of students (special education, ELL, low-income, ethnicity)

17. What district or building supports are available to help you meet the needs of all students?
18. Have you been encouraged to reflect on your understanding and ability to teach diverse student populations? If so, how?

Instructional Leadership

19. What evaluation feedback do you find most helpful to you as a novice teacher? Please explain your choice(s) to me.
20. Does your principal connect feedback to student achievement and if so, how?
21. Does your principal provide supervision that influences your practice and if so, how?

Appendix C

School and District Leader Interview

Introduction

- Greet and introduce yourself and your role and explain to the teacher the purpose of the study - to gather data and to explore how leadership influences the job satisfaction of novice teachers
- Go over the disclosure statement and highlight the informed consent and confidentiality. Remind the participant that they are not required to participate in the interview. They may choose not to answer a certain question or all questions. They may stop the interview at any time
- State that the interview will begin with an inquiry into their educational history

Job Satisfaction

1. Do you believe novice teachers are satisfied with their jobs? How do you know?
2. What elements of the school or district do you believe influence the job satisfaction of your novice teachers?

School Culture

3. How do you differentiate between your role in a school's culture and that of the teacher?
Detail each role.
4. How do you feel you give support/assistance to your novice teachers when they have a problem? If so, what does that support/assistance look like?
5. Are there structures within the school day that help foster collaboration between you and the novice teachers? Explain your answer.
6. What words do you immediately associate with school culture?

Distributive Leadership

7. In what ways do teachers have opportunities to take on leadership roles in the school?

How do you let go of your authority to promote this practice?

8. Are novice teachers able to take on leadership roles? How do you promote those with less experience being connected to leadership opportunities?

Servant Leadership

9. How do you empower novice teachers? Can you offer some specific examples?

10. How do you make novice teachers feel valued? Can you provide some specific examples?

11. How do you respond to feedback from teachers? Are you open to different views? Can you provide some specific examples?

Central Office

12. What district supports are provided to novice teachers?

13. Is there a direct impact from central office to novice teachers? How do you measure that?

Social Justice Leadership

14. What district or building supports are available for novice teachers to meet the needs of all students?

15. How have you provided opportunities for teachers to reflect on their understanding and knowledge of diverse populations?

16. Is there a cultural mismatch between novice teachers and student populations? If so, how do you address this?

Instructional Leadership

17. What evaluation feedback do you believe is most helpful to a novice teacher? Please explain your choice(s) to me.
18. Do you provide feedback to the novice teacher that connects to student achievement and if so, how?
19. Do you provide supervision to the novice teacher that influences their practice? If so, can you provide examples?